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*I would be always a little child,
Stretching my eager fingers out to catch the rain;
To touch the bright, sweet flowers;
 On the path I pass
To hear the noisy insects in the grass;
 Always would I know
The thrilling wonder of my first white snow!*

*I would be always innocent:
 Would always learn;
Would greet each dawn with glee;
Ah, it is much, is much,
To know the Coming Kingdom is of such!*

—Toyohiko Kagawa.



SCHOOLS in SMALL COMMUNITIES

SEVENTEENTH YEARBOOK

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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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Foreword

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AFTER HIS TRAVELS in this country, about 1831, Tocqueville wrote: "The American Revolution broke out, and *the doctrine of the sovereignty of the people*, which had been *nurtured in the townships and municipalities*, took possession of the state, every class enlisted in its cause; battles were fought and victories obtained for it; until it became the law of laws." From the beginning of our national existence democracy has flourished in the villages and towns. And yet today in many small communities children are denied the educational opportunities to be expected under a democratic form of government. In most instances this neglect arises from lack of financial resources and of educational leadership. It will test the ingenuity of all citizens to discover ways of surmounting these obstacles while, at the same time, preserving the unique contribution of the small community to American civilization.

Awareness of the foregoing challenge led to a resolution at the St. Louis convention in 1936 urging a study of the problems of schools in small communities. In carrying out this resolution a yearbook commission was selected in part by President A. L. Threlkeld and in part by President Charles B. Glenn. In the intervening period the Commission has held several meetings to outline the work, formulate the policies, and review manuscripts. Chapters have been revised thru conferences until the present report represents the composite thought of the Commission. While members of the Commission had opportunity to temper each contribution no individual should be held responsible for all the statements within the volume.

Underlying this presentation are certain general convictions:

(1) That the small school system is a unique institution in American education. For this reason the administrative plan should be organized to serve boys and girls thru an educational program suited to local conditions and needs.

(2) That the school program of a small community has a duty to serve both the child who will live in the same or a similar community and the child who will eventually reside in a large city.

(3) That there are two avenues for the improvement of the educational program in small school systems: thru greater efficiency and enrichment within the framework of the present administrative structure, and thru fundamental reorganization of the administrative structure. These approaches are complementary.

(4) Finally, that the superintendent of the small school system occupies a most important position with exceptional opportunities for rendering distinguished service to public education.

Frequent reference is made in the chapters to the *small school system*. Two words in this phrase need some definition. The Commission has not sharply defined what is meant by *small*. It has been simpler in some of the chapters to consider the systems under discussion as "relatively smaller" rather than to sharply limit the size to any population level. In general, however, school systems in communities with populations of from 500 to 5000 are considered, with a special focus of attention upon systems in communities of about 2500 population. However, it is hoped that some value will be found in this study by superintendents in somewhat larger systems. By *school system* is meant an organization offering training thru the high school under the direction of a superintendent and a board of education. Whether the word *school* or *school system* appears this definition applies. No specific consideration is given to the problems of the small school unit within a larger system, of the small segregated elementary- or high-school system, or of the one-room school.

This yearbook could not have been prepared without the assistance of hundreds of persons. Superintendents of schools in small communities have been particularly helpful by answering questionnaires and by sending record forms and suggestions. Students of the problems in this area of administration have been generous in permitting the use of their investigations. In certain instances, where persons not members of the Commission prepared parts of chapters, acknowledgment has been made in footnotes at those points. Citations and references thruout the yearbook further indicate the debt for outside assistance. For all assistance received the Commission extends its sincere thanks.

Special acknowledgment is made of the significant assistance which the Commission received from the staff at headquarters in Washington. Many important functions in the development of this yearbook were skilfully performed by them. Sherwood D. Shankland, Executive Secretary of the American Association of School Administrators, in addition to effectively managing the business arrangements of the meetings, made valuable contributions to the deliberations and guided the Commission in the light of his extended experience with former commissions. Frank W. Hubbard, Associate Director of Research of the National Education Association, assumed many important responsibilities. In addition to collecting and tabulating statistical and other basic materials, he served as an effective coordinator of the activities of the Commission, prepared important sections of the work, and edited the report for publication.

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Education—

. . . is not apart from life; it is just the adult generation giving its own world to the new generation. And be sure the adult generation will not give a very different world from that in which itself lives. The adult generation cannot keep its own private evils, traditions, greeds, autocracies, shams, follies, and insincerities, and ask the school, working in the midst of these effective influences, to produce a new generation committed to good, to science, to altruism, to democracy, to honesty, to wisdom, and to sincerity." The democratic problem in education is not primarily a problem of training children; it is the problem of making a community within which children cannot help growing up to be democratic, intelligent, disciplined to freedom, reverent of the goods of life, and eager to share in the tasks of the age. A school cannot produce this result; nothing but a community can do so.—Hart, Joseph K., *The Discovery of Intelligence*, Century Co., 1924, p. 382.

CHAPTER I

The Community Setting

THE SCHOOL is the central institution of rural life. Nine out of every ten schools and 55 percent of the teachers in the United States are in communities of less than 2500 inhabitants. Consequently the vast majority of school systems in the country are small and comprise rural schools. The proportion of our population which is rural is less than that which is urban, but there are slightly more children under fifteen years of age in the rural areas.¹ Because of the scattered population and the large numbers of villages, the number of school administrative units, of whatever sort or however conceived, is vastly larger in rural than in urban territory and consists of small systems. This statement may be confirmed by a study of Table 1, which shows that in 1930 there were four times as many incorporated villages as cities, to say nothing of unincorporated villages. The average size of the incorporated villages in 1930 was 683, which means that most of them probably had high schools, and may be conceived as the centers of informal school systems, whatever the official administrative unit may be. From the Office of Education² we learn that there are in the United States approximately 138,542 one-room schools, 24,000 two-teacher type schools, and 28,856 village schools with three or more teachers. The several states report only 17,248 consolidated schools and it is probable that many of these have fewer than two or three teachers each.³ It is plain, therefore, that the larger proportion of school systems in this country are small systems in rural communities, and that they include half of the school enrolment of the country. In view of these facts, it is obvious that a knowledge of the social structure of the rural environment is essential in any consideration of the problems of the small school system, for both methods of administration and the content and methods of instruction will be affected by the setting of the school in the rural community.

¹ Rural population 43.8 percent, urban 56.2 percent; under fifteen years, 50.7 percent rural. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Abstract of the Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. Table 103, p. 187.

² U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. "Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*. Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. I, Chapter V. 70 p. (Advance pages.)

³ Blose, David T. "Some Consolidation Statistics." *School Life* 21: 223-24; April 1936.

It is important, also, to realize that the problems of the small school system are of concern to urban as well as rural people, for our cities are increasingly dependent upon the rural territory for the replacement of their population. Baker⁴ has shown that the average fertility rate for the cities of 100,000 and over is about one-fifth less than necessary to maintain a stationary population, and for cities of from 2500 to 100,000 there is a deficit of about 7 percent. This situation is confirmed by estimates of Dorn and Lorimer⁵ who give the estimated reproduction rate for all cities as 0.87, for rural non-farm population as 1.33, and for rural farm as 1.62. During the

⁴ Baker, O. E. "Rural-Urban Migration and National Welfare." *Annals of the Association of American Geographers* 23: 73; June 1933. Figure 11.

⁵ Dorn, Harold F., and Lorimer, Frank. "Migration, Reproduction, and Population Adjustment." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 188: 280-89; November 1936. Table 1.

† See also: National Resources Committee. *The Problems of a Changing Population*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. Table 3, p. 134.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES BY SIZE OF COMMUNITY, 1920, 1930

Community classification	Number of places		Population in thousands		Percent of total population	
	1920	1930	1920	1930	1920	1930
Farm.....			31,359	30,158	29.7	24.6
Rural non-farm outside villages ^a			2,882	5,979	2.7	4.8
Unincorporated villages ^b and hamlets...	39,993 ^c		8,202 ^c	8,500 ^d	7.8	6.4
Incorporated villages ^e	12,853	13,433	8,963	9,183	8.5	7.5
Total rural.....	52,846		51,406	53,820	48.6	43.8
Cities 2,500-9,999.....	2,041	2,183	9,592	10,615	9.0	8.6
Cities 10,000-99,999...	678	889	17,283	22,014	16.4	18.0
Cities 100,000 and over...	68	93	27,430	36,326	26.0	29.6
Total urban....	2,787	3,165	54,305	68,955	51.4	56.2
Total United States...	55,633		105,711	122,775	100.0	100.0

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Abstract of the Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. Table 6, p. 14, and Table 9, p. 18, unless otherwise noted.

^a Computed by subtracting lines 1-3-4 from the total rural of line 5.

^b Including hamlets under 250 population.

^c Estimated from the following data: Morse, H. N., and Brunner, E. de S. *Town and Country Church in the United States*. New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1923. p. 39. (Gives 34,422 hamlets under 250 population with an average of 121. This estimate includes incorporated hamlets, which have been deducted from the total number, and all hamlets of 25 or more inhabitants.) † Fry, Charles L. *American Villagers*. New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1926. p. 28. (Gives 8142 unincorporated villages, over 250 population, with an average of 534, obtained from atlas counts.)

^d Estimate of: Brunner, E. de S., and Kolb, J. H. *Rural Social Trends*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. p. 18.

^e Includes incorporated places of all sizes under 2500 population.

decade 1920-1929 there was a net migration from farms to cities of about 6,300,000 persons, and altho this was temporarily checked during the industrial depression, and the movement was reversed in 1932, the cityward movement is again going forward and will doubtless continue, because of the excess of rural population and the deficiency of reproduction in the cities. Since, therefore, the educational qualifications of a considerable proportion of city workers are being determined by the efficiency of rural schools, cities have an economic interest at stake in rural education. Indeed, Baker⁶ has estimated that during the decade 1920-1929 it cost rural people an average of \$1,400,000,000 per year to rear those who migrated to the cities.

The Changing Structure of Rural Life

Inasmuch as the small school system occurs in rural or semi-rural territory, it is important to see it in relation to the total rural situation. In the beginning of rural schools over most of the country, there was no system in the sense of an administrative unit. Each one-room country school was managed by the taxpayers of its district under the authority of state legislation. It was a neighborhood school. The idea of a small school system, whether county, township, or community, implies some sort of integration for purposes of administration and supervision. This tendency toward integration of the schools is but a phase of a process which is affecting all aspects of rural life.

In the early stages of settlement and development the neighborhood was the primary unit of rural social organization beyond the family homestead. The one-room country school and the open-country church were the chief neighborhood centers. Farmers went to the nearest villages for business purposes, to buy goods and to market their products, but except for the few families within a mile or two of the village they had little in common with it. They were countrymen and, except for visits to friends or relatives, they had few social contacts with the villagers. Only the exceptional boy or girl ever expected to go to high school or college, and if he did he had to find a way to earn his board and room while living in the village to attend its high school. Farm people visited and helped each other within the neighborhood, and met at the local

⁶ Baker, O. E., *op. cit.*, p. 87.

school or church or in their homes for neighborhood gatherings. To go to the village or town was an event, for horse-drawn vehicles and unimproved roads with mud hub-deep or winter snowdrifts made a drive of even three or four miles a real hardship and required much time at many seasons.

The advent of the automobile and of good roads changed the whole picture of rural life.⁷ Spatial relations were revolutionized within a few years. Altho the neighborhood is still the most important local unit in many more isolated sections and regions, it has had a noticeable decline in the older parts of the country since the World War. Thus in 1930 Kolb and Brunner⁸ found that in the areas of 140 villages where there had been 513 neighborhoods in 1924 there were only 429 or a loss of one-sixth in six years. In Dane County, Wisconsin, in 1931 Kolb⁹ found a loss of one-third of the neighborhoods which had been active in 1921. In Otsego County, New York,¹⁰ a similar decline was recorded. It is true that some new neighborhoods have arisen around gas stations, particularly in semi-suburban areas, but these have not been sufficient to offset the general decline of the neighborhood as a vital rural group.

The automobile and all-weather roads made it possible for farm people to go to the village as often as they wished and village contacts increased. Not only this, but it was no longer necessary to patronize local merchants or churches if others in the next village were superior, so that competition between villages and with cities forced local improvements. Open-country churches decreased and attendance of farmers at village churches increased.

The rapid extension of telephone lines and rural free delivery also expanded the farmer's means of communication and gave him many new contacts. The automobile and the telephone made possible the formation and maintenance of many more rural organizations. The Farm Bureau and the farmers' cooperative associations had a rapid growth and the Grange grew apace; organizations for farm women such as the Home Bureaus, farm women's clubs, and parent-

⁷ Sanderson, Dwight. *The Relation of the Farmer to Rural and Urban Groups*. Publications of the American Sociological Society, Vol. 22, 1928, p. 100-10.

⁸ Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. Table 4, p. 52.

⁹ Kolb, J. H. *Trends of Country Neighborhoods*. Research Bulletin 120. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station. p. 3.

¹⁰ Sanderson, Dwight, and Dorn, Harold F. *The Rural Neighborhoods of Otsego County, New York*. Mimeograph Bulletin 2. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Department of Rural Social Organization.

teacher associations also increased, as did organizations for adolescents, such as the Four-H Clubs and Scouts. The activities and interests of rural people have increased rapidly with better means of communication.

But even before automobiles had become common there had developed a new movement in rural education which was destined to have the most profound influence on rural social organization. High schools had developed rapidly in cities and towns, but they were not generally available to rural children except by boarding in the village. As early as 1902 the National Education Association passed a resolution "that high-school opportunities should be as ample and free to the country children as they are fast coming to be to the children of every progressive urban community." A similar resolution was passed in 1905 and repeated in 1907. From 1905 to 1910 the General Education Board¹¹ and the Southern Education Board commenced to aid the organization and supervision of high schools in the South thru the support of professorships in secondary education, and it was about this time that there developed the slogan that every rural child should have the opportunity to go to high school while living at home. This required a rural high school available within a distance for which transportation at public expense was practicable. As a result, there was a rapid increase in the number of rural high schools and in the number of high-school pupils. The number of public secondary schools increased steadily from 1890 to 1920 and since then has had a more rapid increase, in spite of the agricultural and industrial depressions, while the number of high-school pupils practically doubled in each decade, as shown in Table 2. Most of the increase in the number of high schools was in rural communities.

The growth of rural high schools produced a radical change in the social centers of rural life. High schools could be maintained only in the large villages which had a sufficient constituency to support them, and their location in the large villages was made possible by automobile buses. The new high school brought the young people together from a larger area and its social activities made it the center of interest and the pride of the whole area which gradually became community-conscious.

¹¹ General Education Board. *An Account of Its Activities, 1902-1914*. New York: the Board, 1915.

TABLE 2.—GROWTH OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS
SINCE 1890

Year	Number of schools	Number of pupils	Number of teachers
1890.....	2,526	202,963	9,120
1900.....	6,005	519,251	20,372
1910.....	10,213	915,061	41,667
1920.....	14,326	2,199,389	97,654
1930.....	23,930	4,399,422	213,306
1932.....	26,409	5,140,021	231,153
1936 ^a	24,714	5,974,537	267,584

Source: Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*, New York: American Book Co., 1936. Table IV, p. 24.
^a Figures for 1936 are estimates furnished by the federal Office of Education.

Furthermore, despite all the progress made in recent years to prevent the multiplication of small schools, there are still over 4600 each with a high-school enrolment of fewer than fifty. Significant data along this line are presented by Gaumnitz in Table 3.

It should be kept in mind that as long as we believe in providing education for "all of the children of all of the people" (and we are practically united in adherence to this ideal)¹² and as long as large segments of our society continue to be predominantly rural, we are destined to have many small schools. The problem, therefore, cannot be solved by hoping for the complete elimination of small schools, but rather by recognizing that they are destined in the future to play an important role in American life; by revealing their possibilities and advantages under certain conditions; and by developing those materials and technics which make for a constructive and qualitative approach to small school administration.

While this rapid increase of rural high schools was occurring, after the World War there was a marked decline in rural population in large parts of the country. This made it impractical in many districts to maintain one-room schools with efficiency and economy, and has led to a general movement toward consolidation and the reorganization of attendance areas. In some rural communities the consolidated school may consist of both elementary and secondary grades; in others it may be elementary grades and junior high school; while in some it may include only the elementary grades.

¹² National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1937. 129 p.

During the same period (1910-1920) there was a marked increase in the standard of living of rural people. It was probably the most prosperous period in the history of American agriculture, and improved communication and transportation gave rise to new wants and interests. Moving pictures furnished a new form of recreation which could be seen in the larger villages. The chain store had spread to the larger villages and farmers were no longer dependent on the local stores. A higher standard of living meant more patronage for the stores of the larger villages which offered more variety.

While schools and stores were being centralized in the larger villages, village churches also grew more than open-country churches, and the latter decreased in number. When the farmer could hear a good sermon and fine music on the radio, he was not so well satisfied with a non-resident minister and the country choir. In the settle-

TABLE 3.—SIGNIFICANT FACTS RELATING TO RURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

A. Size of America's Public High Schools in 1934		
Enrolments	Number of schools	Percent
10-24	1,470	6.3
25-49	3,139	13.6
50-74	3,364	14.5
75-99	2,795	12.0
100-199	5,594	24.1
200 or more	6,851	29.5
Total.....	23,237	100.0
B. Miscellaneous Facts ^a		
(1) Percent of all public high schools located in rural and urban communities:	Rural, 75.9 Urban, 24.1	
(2) Percent of total public high-school enrolment:	Rural, 37.7 Urban, 62.3	
(3) Percent ^b of children 14 to 17 years of age attending high school:	Rural, 60.5° Urban, 67.9°	
(4) Number of rural high schools offering four years of high school with: ^d	One teacher, 346 Two teachers, 2,089	
(5) Men employed in rural high schools, ^b Percent of all rural high-school teachers,	35,117° 44.7	
(6) Men teaching in rural elementary schools, Percent of all rural elementary teachers,	64,559° 16.8	

Source: Gaumnitz, W. H. "The Importance of the Small School—Its Major Problems." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 211; April 1937.

^a Enrolments in Grades IX to XII or equivalent.

^b Estimated.

^c Taken from *Biennial Survey of Education, 1934-36*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Vol. I, Chapter 5, "Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas."

^d Data for 1930.

ment of much of the country more churches had been established than were warranted by a declining population and increased costs for maintenance. Many of the open-country churches and those in hamlets and small villages were abandoned, for sectarian differences did not command the loyalties of the younger generation as they had formerly done.¹³

All these factors influenced the progressive movement of rural social and economic life to center in the villages, but another powerful influence was the decline of rural population in most of the older sections. From 1910 to 1920 one-third of the counties in the United States lost population. From 1920 to 1930, 41 percent of all the counties lost population and these counties included one-fourth of the national population. Three-fifths of these losing counties were in one-fourth of the states.¹⁴ Approximately one-fifth of the rural farm population of 1920 migrated to towns or cities during the next decade. With such an exodus of rural people, and particularly of the younger age groups, it is no wonder that the smaller villages lacked a constituency to maintain their institutions and that many of them were unable to compete with the attractions of the larger villages. The larger villages have tended to hold their own or to grow, while an increasing proportion of the smaller villages (under 500) have tended to decline in population and in numbers (see Figure I).¹⁵

Along with these changes in rural life there has arisen during the past twenty-five years a new concept, that of the rural community.¹⁶ Prior to 1910 the term "community" appeared but rarely in popular literature. In the next few years the community center movement developed in the cities, and in 1915 Galpin¹⁷ developed a method for mapping the rural community. During the World War many war-time activities were organized on a community basis, and at the close of the War the National and State Councils of Defense were actively engaged in a plan, approved by President Wilson, for organizing local community councils thruout the country. At the same

¹³ Brunner, E. de S., and Kolb, J. H. *Rural Social Trends*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. p. 209, 210.

¹⁴ Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. p. 221. (Gives the states containing three-fifths of the losing counties as: Arkansas, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Wisconsin.)

¹⁵ Gillette, John M. *Rural Sociology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. p. 580.

¹⁶ For a detailed discussion of the evolution of the rural community, see: Sanderson, Dwight. *The Rural Community*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1932. 723 p.

¹⁷ Galpin, C. J. *The Social Anatomy of an Agricultural Community*. Research Bulletin 34. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, 1915.

time the agricultural extension service was expanding rapidly to meet the war demands on agriculture. Its work was mostly organized on a basis of local community units and in subsequent years in many states it has given active encouragement to rural community organization in various ways. During the same period the churches commenced to place new emphasis upon the community responsibilities of rural churches and made them community-conscious. Thus, thru various agencies, the idea of drawing rural people together in com-

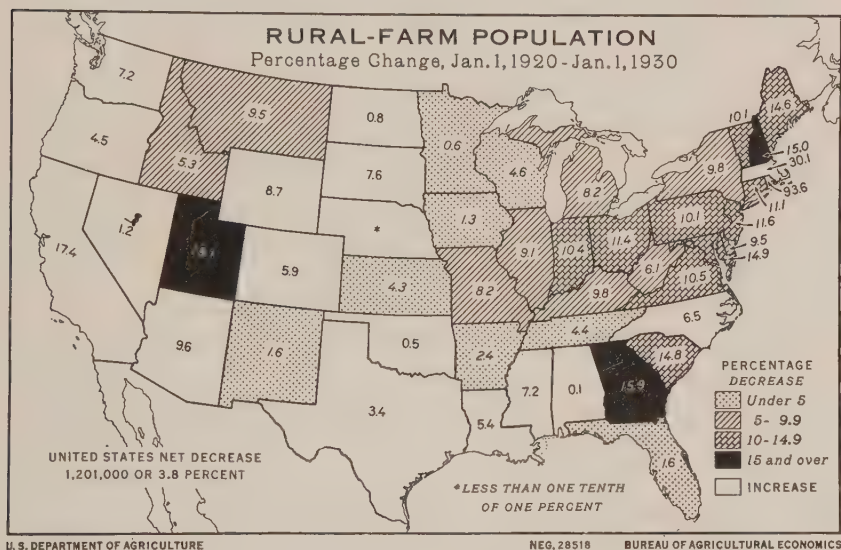


FIGURE I.—PERCENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN RURAL-FARM POPULATION

munity areas for the better promotion of their common interests was fostered, and the community idea was widely accepted.

The rural community, as thus conceived, is composed of two definite parts, the people of the village and those of the open-country tributary to it. Their interests are not always identical, for they involve the inevitable conflicts of buyers and sellers. The village businessman has not always been aware that his livelihood depended upon his farmer patrons and has often been influenced more by the ideologies of his city business associates. Thus, in the first decade of this century, there were many sharp divisions and antagonisms between farmers and villagers, and farmers had a certain distrust

of the village which was seen in their desire to place consolidated schools outside villages and to keep their open-country churches. As time has elapsed, antagonism and suspicion on the part of the farmer have decreased, and the years of the depression since 1921 have shown village businessmen on which side their bread is buttered.

There has been a very general movement, led by the rural bankers, toward a better appreciation of the agricultural basis of village prosperity. As a result, there has been a definite gain in a more cooperative spirit in village-country relations, as shown by the surveys of 140 representative villages thruout the country made by Brunner and his associates in 1924, 1930, and 1936.¹⁸

The farmer is no longer an outsider to the villager; he no longer comes to town only on Saturday to buy his supplies and get the mail, but is back and forth maybe several times a day, and his children mingle in school with the children of the village and are indistinguishable. Indeed, the automobile and hard-surfaced roads have given the farmer a new status. More farmers than villagers own automobiles and many of them have better cars.

Furthermore, altho the dominant position of machinery, power, and industry has transformed this country into one with a predominantly urban population, and has given rise to such economic problems as unemployment, faulty distribution, and concentration of wealth, the extension of electricity to rural areas is making possible a decentralization of certain industries¹⁹ and radical changes in rural life. Within a few decades electricity has come to supplant the steam engines which for years gathered raw materials and human beings about them in concentrated masses. With high voltage transmission lines, it is now possible for power to be transmitted long distances. Comforts and conveniences once known only to the large cities are now common in thousands of smaller towns and villages.

Rural electrification, once only a dream, is now becoming a stirring reality. Hard-surfaced highways and facilities for long distance transportation and rapid communication make it possible for hundreds of thousands to live "the good life" in small communities and to do business in larger communities. In other words, the age

¹⁸ Brunner, E. de S., and Lorge, Irving. *Rural Trends in Depression Years*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1937. p. 87. (This shows that in 1924 only about one-fifth of the villages were classed as "cooperative," while in 1936 there were 60 percent, and there were only half as many classed as having "poor" or "conflicting" village-country relations, as in 1924.)

¹⁹ See: Chase, Stuart. "Working with Nature." *Survey Graphic* 26: 624-28; December 1937. "Middle West Utilities Company. *America's New Frontier*. Chicago: the Company (72 W. Adams St.), 1929. 79 p.

of cheap electricity, power, lightweight alloys, and easy, rapid communication means more sunshine, more air, and more abundant living. The old idea of restricted and therefore congested areas for industrial operations is being replaced with a new idea of neighborhoods everywhere participating in all the activities and benefits that flow from industry.

Community Life More Significant

The new partnership of industry and community is but another way of providing better living for us all and is having a profound effect upon the thinking and idealism of the time.²⁰ We are awakening to the fact that there is no great virtue in a gross increase of the population of a city without qualitative elements for human life. Businessmen everywhere are beginning to learn that bigness is not always the answer to efficiency. In fact, there is today a pronounced tendency toward decentralization in many leading industries. The tobacco, dairy, automobile, and drug industries, among others, have recently found that thru programs of decentralization they can minimize labor troubles, locate closer to the markets and sources of supply, restore flexibility in their operations, and make significant reductions in the costs of manufacturing.²¹ Decentralization would spread prosperity more evenly thruout the United States by bringing about a more general distribution of national income²² among thousands of small communities over the country. While Henry Ford pioneered in urging industry back to the land, an increasing number of industrial leaders now realize the advantages of this policy. Recently Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., now chairman of General Motors, gave the modern view of industry when he said, "I personally believe that decentralization is a good policy for industry to follow, rather than to follow the policy of a highly centralized, integrated unit which carries people that much farther from the soil."

Altho as yet most industrial decentralization has occurred in the rural portion of metropolitan areas,²³ there has been a notable migra-

²⁰ Henzlik, F. E. "The Small Town Superintendency as a Future Career." *School Executives Magazine* 51: 154-55, 178; December 1931.

²¹ Whitmore, Eugene. "Why Business Is Decentralizing." *American Business*. March 1937. ¶ Murphy, John A. "Decentralizing to Reach Markets." *American Business*. April 1937. ¶ Murphy, John A. "Decentralizing for Flexibility." *American Business*. June 1937.

²² Murphy, John A. "Decentralization Spreads Buying Power." *American Business*. August 1937.

²³ Creamer, Daniel B. *Is Industry Decentralizing? Study of Population Distribution*. Bulletin III. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1935. 105 p. Summarized in: Goodrich, Carter, and others. *Migration and Economic Opportunity*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1936. 763 p.

tion of certain industries, particularly textiles, to rural communities in the South,²⁴ and there is a possibility of operating other industries in small units of production, but with a central marketing organization, which warrants further experimentation and might even merit limited government subsidies as a means of demonstrating its possibilities for solving some of our socio-economic problems. The small communities and rural districts cannot help but profit and benefit by this movement.

Furthermore, while business is considered important, there is also today a seeking after cultural, spiritual, and genuine human living. The small town or larger village is coming into its own. It has become quite stabilized during the last two decades and has taken on a form of life intermediate between the city on the one hand, and the open country on the other, and often combining many of the good features of each.²⁵ Under present economic conditions and with modern comforts and conveniences possible, there is a growing belief that genuine and abundant living can be had best thru the human associations in the smaller communities. Quite generally over the country the small industrial center, the small factory, the small social group, and the small community church are not only receiving more attention but are emphasized as desirable units. The small community is a fundamental unit in American democracy. Some believe that in the acceptance of this ideal lies the hope of developing a healthier American civilization.

Thus the solidarity of the rural community has very definitely increased in the last quarter-century and the school has been a central influence in this development, as has been shown by recent studies of its role in community organization.²⁶ However, in all parts of the country this tendency has not been equally marked. There are still large areas in the South and Middlewest where consolidated schools and high schools are located in the open country and where the neighborhood is the local unit of social organization, but the trend has been toward community integration. The rural community is an emergent social unit; it is in the process of becoming; it has no official or political entity; it waxes and

²⁴ Allred, C. E., and Fitch, J. C. *Effects of Industrial Development on Rural Life in Sullivan County, Tennessee*. University of Tennessee Record, Extension Series, Vol. V, No. 3, May 1928.

²⁵ Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. "Rural Life." *Recent Social Trends*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Vol. I, Chapter 10, p. 497-552.

²⁶ Stromberg, Eugene T. *The Influence of the Central Rural School on Community Organization*. Bulletin 699. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, June 1938. 39 p.

wanes according to the local leadership and various local conditions; and yet it is coming to be recognized by rural people as the means for improving the common welfare. This growing realization of rural people, that they are part of a potential community and that only thru united effort can they have the advantages they desire, has tremendous significance for rural education, for the high school or consolidated school is the central institution of the new rural community.

The Social Values of the Rural Community

It would make our discussion of the rural community more vivid if we could present a picture of the life and social organization of a typical rural community in the manner in which the Lynds have described an American city in the book *Middletown*. Unfortunately, however, any such attempt would not be realistic, for it is impossible to describe what is typical of so large a country. Rural communities differ in their characteristics according to their size,²⁷ and even within the same section communities of the same size differ in character just as do individuals, as has been well shown by Baldwin²⁸ and his collaborators in studies of representative Iowa rural communities.

There are, however, certain characteristics of the life and social organization of the rural community which differentiate it from the urban community and which have an important bearing on the relation of the rural school and the small school system to it.

The Farm Family and Its Work ²⁹

It is well known that the farm family is larger and more stable than the city family. The median number in the rural farm family living at home for native whites of native parentage is 28 percent larger than that for the urban family;³⁰ while if all children ever

²⁷ Melvin, Bruce L. *Village Service Agencies*. Bulletin 493. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, 1929. (An analysis of the institutional differences of villages of varying size.)

²⁸ Baldwin, Bird T.; Fillmore, Eva A.; and Hadley, Lora. *Farm Children*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1930. 337 p. (The last paragraph of this book states: "Altho the two communities did not differ in every detail studied, those characteristics in which they did differ gave each a well-defined individuality. The idea that either might be a typical rural community was abandoned as differences, both present and past, became increasingly apparent. Altho both groups were in a rural setting, the children reared in these diverse environments had their own peculiar characteristics. Typical rural children were not found. Instead, children were found to differ according to the influences that surrounded them. The individuality of communities, parents, and children is one of the main factors shown by this study of rural children in Iowa.")

²⁹ Sanderson, Dwight. "The Rural Family." *Journal of Home Economics* 29: 223-28; April 1937.

³⁰ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930*. Population, Vol. VI. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. Table 22, p. 16.

born to the mother are considered, the rural family is 60 to 75 percent larger than the urban family.³¹ The rural family is also much more stable, the percent of native whites of native parents who are divorced being three times as large in cities of 500,000 and over as on farms, and the annual divorce rate shows a corresponding difference.

There is one fundamental characteristic of the farm family in that its members have a common interest in the farm as a family occupation and means of support. The family is bound together in a way which does not occur when the occupation is separated from the home. Each member of the family has certain responsibilities connected with the work of the farm and the home. Family loyalties are probably stronger in the farm home, which from its relative isolation forms more of a social unit. The participation of the child in the productive processes of nature, and the fact that the farmer must always plan his work with a view to deferred awards which will depend upon his effort and foresight, undoubtedly have a very definite effect in character formation. In studies made by Lewis³² in Kentucky and Minnesota he found that children from the one-room country schools ranked definitely higher than those of village and town schools with regard to (a) obedience to school authority, (b) application to study, (c) purpose in life, and (d) honesty and truthfulness, and he gives an interesting discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the rural community, which are similarly reviewed by Baldwin and others³³ from their Iowa studies.

Stability

Another characteristic of the people in the rural community is the lower rate of mobility, except for areas where there is a large proportion of tenants. Frequent moves are not conducive to successful farming. In two studies of the graduates of rural high schools in Minnesota, extending over thirty-one and forty-eight years, it was found that in one case³⁴ 47 percent were in the community or the

³¹ Sydenstricker, Edgar, and Notestein, Frank W. "Differential Fertility According to Social Class." *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 25: 9-32; March 1930. ¶ Thompson, Warren S., and Whelpton, P. K. *Population Trends in the United States*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Table 78, p. 279.

³² Lewis, Charles D. *The Rural Community and Its Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1937. p. 26.

³³ Baldwin, Bird T.; Fillmore, Eva A.; and Hadley, Lora, *op. cit.*, p. 150-68.

³⁴ Nielsen, William O. *501 Graduates 31 Years, 1903-1934*. Mimeographed. (Superintendent, Spring Grove High School, Minn.)

immediate vicinity, and in the other,³⁵ 37 percent were in the community and 49 percent in the same county. In Genesee County, New York, Anderson³⁶ found that 60 percent of the farm owners were born in the same township or one adjoining it; that the average time spent in the present home by farm owners was seventeen years and by rural non-farmers nine years; and that the average time in which all open-country families had lived within ten miles of their present home was twenty-one years, which formed 83 percent of the total family existence. "Thruout their total farming experience, 20 percent of the operators remained on the same farm, 25 percent moved but once, while 18 percent moved twice. With more than six out of ten operators shifting less than three times in their total experience, a fair degree of stability is indicated."³⁷ In Ohio, Lively³⁸ found that 62 percent of the farm operators lived in the county in which they were born and 46 percent lived in the same township; that 49 percent of the farm families had lived in the same township since its formation; and that the average number of moves during the history of the family was 1.3 for farm owners and 1.7 for farm renters. He has also shown that half of the children leaving home reside in the same county, and that 67 percent of all open-country persons sixteen years of age or over reside in the county in which they were reared.³⁹ Similar data could be cited for other states. This stability makes possible a larger degree of personal acquaintance and the relationships are, therefore, much more personal. Furthermore, it makes possible a sense of belonging to the community which does not occur with greater mobility, as is shown by the poorer support given community institutions by tenants than by owners.

Social Control

Greater stability and personal acquaintance result in a larger degree of social control, for one is more susceptible to public opinion where he is well known by all and in a small community where it is

³⁵ Ortonville, Minn., *High School Alumni, 1887-1935*. Mimeographed.

³⁶ Anderson, W. A. *Mobility of Rural Families, I*. Bulletin 607. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, June 1934. Tables 4, 18, and 19.

³⁷ Anderson, W. A. "Interfarm Mobility in New York State." *Rural Sociology* 2: 394; December 1937.

³⁸ Lively, C. E., and Beck, P. G. *Movement of Open-Country Population in Ohio*. Bulletin 467. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Agriculture Experiment Station, November 1930. Tables 13, 16, and 20.

³⁹ Lively, C. E., and Foott, Frances. *Population Mobility in Selected Areas of Rural Ohio, 1928-1935*. Bulletin 582. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Agriculture Experiment Station, June 1937. Table 8 and Appendix Table II.

desirable to maintain the esteem of others. This tendency has been commonly noted by students of city life with its weaker social control. Thus the Urbanism Committee states:

The city person whose family ties are less binding, who seldom, because of his mobility, has more than a tenuous connection with a neighborhood, who inhabits a nondescript local community that has no common life to speak of, lives in a relative social void when compared to the villager whose family and community are integrating, stabilizing, and controlling factors in his existence and conduct.⁴⁰

Undoubtedly a strong factor in the social control of the rural community is the larger degree of kinship among its people, resulting from the stability of residence. Of course, village and neighborhood gossip sometimes becomes irksome and is one reason for the migration of the more independent persons to larger places, but this only increases social control over those who remain. It is necessary for accuracy to note that with better means of communication and the infiltration of part-time farmers and city workers, the social control of the rural community declines as it becomes subject to urban influences. The social control of the rural community makes for a certain conservatism, which is a healthful balance to the excessive radicalism of city workers. Membership in numerous more specialized interest groups in the urban community gives a certain satisfaction for the time being, but without intimate association with those about him from day to day, life often becomes lonesome and disorganized. The more personal, primary group relationships give a satisfaction and a sense of security in the rural community.

Relative Self-Sufficiency

As compared with the city, the rural community is relatively much more self-sufficient in times of stress. Altho it must depend upon the outside world for most of its manufactured goods, it has most of its own food supply, much of its fuel, and more of its people own their own homes or do not need to fear being thrown out the next month because of sudden unemployment. This difference is particularly noticeable in times of economic depression, as is shown by the lower relief rates for rural than urban communities during the recent depression (except in areas of unprecedented drouth), and by the return of city workers to rural communities during the worst years

⁴⁰ National Resources Committee. *Our Cities*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. p. 24.

of the depression. It is true that the rural community is becoming more dependent upon urban services. The city bakery truck brings bread to the farmer's door and the farmer now goes to the city to buy his good clothes, but he still prefers the local doctor and banker and patronizes the local garage instead of the blacksmith of former days. Two-thirds of all social and economic services used by farmers in New York State are obtained in the village center of the local community, if the village has a population of 500 or more.⁴¹

Concreteness and Direct Relations

Another advantage of the rural community which makes its effective integration much more possible, is its concreteness and the direct relations which are possible with all phases of its life. The social relations can be grasped by the average individual in a manner which is impossible in a large city, except as the result of extended study and the use of symbolic data. No person can have direct relations with the complex social phenomena of a large city, but he can be acquainted with them more or less personally in a rural community. These direct personal experiences of community relationships contain many possibilities for training both young and old in a knowledge of the economic, political, social, and ethical aspects of group life. In the complex urban situation many basic social processes are far removed from the individual.

It is this directness of personal relationships which makes possible a larger degree of social solidarity in the rural community than is possible in the larger community except thru expensive mechanisms and then only indirectly. Rural community organization is only in its beginnings in this country because of the newness of the situation, but in larger rural communities there is the possibility of developing the finest type of social relations, and the advances made in the last quarter-century since the community idea has become current indicate a gradual acceptance of community ideals.

In his prophetic analysis of *The Rural Life Problem in the United States*, Plunkett brought out the values of the small community in two statements. Referring to the history of the Irish clans, he says:

The history of these clans and of very small nations like the ancient Greek states shows that the social feeling assumes its most binding and powerful char-

⁴¹ Sanderson, Dwight. *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York*. Bulletin 614. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, June 1934. p. 92-97.

acter where the community is large enough to allow free play of the various interests of human life, but not so large that it becomes an abstraction to the imagination.⁴²

Once get the farmers and their families all working together at something that concerns them all, and we have the beginning of a more stable and a more social community than is likely to exist amid the constant change and bustle of the large towns, where indeed some thinkers tell us that not only the family, but also the social life is badly breaking down. When people are intensely interested in each other—and this interest comes of habitually working together—the smallest personal traits or events affecting one are of interest to all. The simplest piece of amateur acting or singing, done in the village hall by one of the villagers, will arouse more criticism and more enthusiasm among his friends and neighbors than can be excited by the most consummate performance of a professional in a great city theater, where no one in the audience knows or cares for the performer.⁴³

Furthermore, the fact that community relations and obligations can be grasped by everyone in the rural community gives the latter a peculiar opportunity for developing good citizenship. The value of community participation as a means of developing civic responsibility has been well stated by Follett:

Moreover, neighborhood [community] organization gives us a definite objective for individual responsibility. We cannot understand our duty or perform our duty unless it is a duty to *something*. It is because of the erroneous notion that the individual is related to "society" rather than to a group or groups that we can trace much of our lack of responsibility. A man trusts vaguely that he is doing his duty to "society," but such vagueness gets him nowhere. There is no "society," and, therefore, he often does no duty. But let him once understand that his duty is to his group—to his neighborhood group, to his industrial group—and he will begin to see his duty as a specific, concrete thing taking definite shape for him.⁴⁴

So the rural community has a value not only for its own people, but it has a peculiar contribution which it may make to a more socialized citizenship of the nation as a whole. The neighborly spirit which has been indigenous to country life, and which has carried over to the city thru its rural immigrants, has been one of the finest assets of American life. In the future the community spirit of the rural community may have the same influence thru the young blood that goes from it to maintain our cities.

⁴² Plunkett, Sir Horace. *The Rural Life Problem in the United States*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1910, p. 129.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 131.

⁴⁴ Follett, Mary P. *The New State*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1918, p. 227.

The Community as the Essential Unit for the Small School System

If the philosophy of school-community interdependence,⁴⁵ as suggested thruout this yearbook, is correct then the question arises as to whether the school can successfully educate its pupils if it is outside the natural community. With increasing state and county control of local school systems thru financial aid, there is often a tendency to base the location of consolidated schools and high schools upon criteria of efficiency, either with regard to the organization of the proposed standards of curriculum content or in terms of cost per pupil. When these criteria are used as the only standards, the importance of the community relation to the school tends to be ignored and may be completely lost, to the disadvantage of both the school and the community. It is possible to give a certain type of education to pupils outside their home community, as is done at a boarding school, but placing the school outside the community alienates community interest and control and the pupil is in much the same relation to it as the rural patron is to a city department store—he goes to a school, which is outside his area of experience and his natural ties, to buy an education.⁴⁶ The school which is located outside the natural community of residence of a definite group of its pupils cannot make use of the educational agencies in their home community. It cannot function as a social center for their community whose chief interests center in another village. Such pupils are essentially non-residents of the school community so long as their home community maintains its identity and holds their loyalty, and is not effectively assimilated in the larger community of the school.

It is impossible to have a high school in every hamlet, and there are undoubtedly too many small inefficient high schools, but it may be better to have smaller schools within limits of minimum efficiency and practicable cost, even tho the cost is higher and they are not so efficient as larger schools, so as to keep them related to the community life. This statement does not mean that all communities

⁴⁵ For one of the first comprehensive statements of this point of view, see: Joint Committee on Rural Schools (George A. Works, chairman). *Rural School Survey of New York State: A Report to the Rural School Patrons*. Ithaca, N. Y.: the Committee, 1922. Chapter 11, "Community Relations," p. 177-87. ¶ Judd, Charles H., and others. *Rural School Survey of New York State: Administration and Supervision*. Ithaca, N. Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1923. Part VI, "The Community Unit," by George A. Works.

⁴⁶ Examples of this are given by Marion Bush Smith in *A Sociological Analysis of Rural Education in Louisiana*. University, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1938. 130 p.

now attempting to support small high schools should do so. Many very small communities will have to become parts of larger communities, but the limit should be an area within which people associate naturally in the social and economic life of every day. The area may change in time, but its coalescence should not be forced, or the community values in the educational process will be dissociated or lost. Indeed, the consolidation of institutions of the small community should be effected only when the new consolidated community institutions will more adequately meet the social and economic needs of the people, and when the people may be assimilated in the larger community because it gives them better social facilities and a larger association.

It is not the function of this chapter to deal with the merits of state, county, or consolidated districts for educational administration. However, it is important that whatever the administrative system,⁴⁷ there should be preserved a definite autonomy in the small school system and that its attendance areas should coincide with community areas as closely as possible, irrespective of political units. The importance of recognizing community areas is emphasized by the recent *Report of the Advisory Committee on Education*, which states: "In rural areas, the school system should be as efficiently organized and as well supported as in urban areas; so far as feasible, school attendance areas should follow community lines."⁴⁸ Elsewhere the Committee emphasizes the importance of the community unit and how it should be located.

The value of the community unit has also been recognized by the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. In its final report one chapter is significantly entitled "A Home Rule Method of Improving School District Organization," and has the following to say with regard to the proper size school district for New York State:

Coincide as far as possible with the boundaries of other local government units so that cooperative services may be arranged, particularly in connection with health, traffic control, planning, recreation, the joint use of plant, and proper management of public debt.

Keep the schools and the government of the schools close to the people so that the citizens generally, including the parents and taxpayers, may know what their

⁴⁷ The question of the administrative unit is discussed in Chapter IX of this yearbook.

⁴⁸ Advisory Committee on Education. *Report of the Committee*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. p. 18.

schools are doing, may have an effective voice in the school program, and may participate in the community use of the school building.

These last two factors, relation of the school to the natural community and closeness of the school to the people, are of first-rate educational significance and are not to be sacrificed in the interest of "efficiency." If such a sacrifice is made to establish economical districts, we will find in a generation that something of deep significance which money cannot buy has been destroyed.⁴⁹

This point of view has also been well expressed by Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom under the caption, "Harmony with Democratic Principles":

The school is not only training pupils to become citizens of a democratic society but is itself a part of the structure of that society. It is, therefore, necessary that the school district which is responsible for the operation and control of the school be in harmony with its own teachings and, also, that it be so organized that the district structure will contribute to and strengthen the type of social structure which will most effectively promote a community and social organization adapted to the needs of a democratic society.

Harmony with this principle requires that the locality be allowed to participate in the formulation of the program for district reorganization and the means for bringing it about. The district structure developed should be so constituted that it will provide for the state program of equalization and at the same time will provide the means by which the citizens and educational leaders of the district and the state can most effectively determine the type of educational program they need and desire.⁵⁰

In defining five tests for the size of a local unit, Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom state that "it must be in terms of the social and economic structure of the communities which the schools are to serve." They would solve the difficulty by a clear distinction between the function of attendance areas and administrative units.⁵¹

The fundamental question at issue is really a sociological one of whether it is more important to develop school systems which will give the maximum opportunity with efficiency of cost for a certain type of education for the individual, or to have a school system which will preserve and strengthen the community life of those communities which are capable of supporting the institutions needed by the large majority of their citizens. For such an alternative,

⁴⁹ Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. *Education for American Life*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. p. 89-90.

⁵⁰ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. p. 631-32.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, p. 633-38. ¶ On this point, see also: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Public Education in the United States*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, December 1937. p. 5.

there is no formula which will solve all cases. Each situation must be carefully studied and the best solution will probably be in terms of a "golden mean" which best anticipates the future development of the individual area.

The School as a Community Center

A further argument for recognizing the community unit in the small school system is the fact that rural communities need a social center maintained at public expense for many organizations and activities which are necessary for the common welfare.⁵² In recent years there has been a considerable development of community buildings, but experience has shown that, except as they are financed by taxation, it is exceedingly difficult to maintain them except in wealthy communities, and that the problem of administration and supervision is a difficult one. Increasingly, as new school buildings have been erected with ample auditoriums, gymnasiums, and libraries, there has been a demand that they should be used as community centers so far as this use does not interfere with the regular work of the school. The cost of modern school buildings has been one of the chief factors in the rapid rise of rural taxes, and there seems to be no good reason why these expensive buildings should not be used to their capacity. Indeed, there is a decided movement to plan new school buildings, either high schools or consolidated primary schools, so that they can be more fully used as social centers without interference with the work of the school. The community library may be located in the school building, if a suitable outside entrance is arranged, and even a room for the use of adult organizations during the day might be possible.

In his recent report to the American Youth Commission, Homer P. Rainey says, "The greatest hope for the countrywide establishment of recreation centers lies with the schools,"⁵³ and gives much the same analysis as above. The Advisory Committee on Education has also stressed the importance of using the school as a community center: "In many areas the community facilities will not be complete until the high schools become true community centers for educa-

⁵² Schools were first used as community centers in the cities (see Ward, E. J., editor. *The Social Center*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1913.), but the idea soon spread to rural communities (see Hanifan, L. J. *The Community Center*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1920.), and was specifically advocated by the Rural School Survey of New York State in 1922 (Joint Committee on Rural Schools, *op. cit.*, p. 180-85).

⁵³ Rainey, Homer P., and others. *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. p. 87.

tional, recreational, and cultural aspects of community life."⁵⁴ In proposing federal aid for rural school buildings, the Committee recommends that the plans be reviewed to determine, among other things, "the adequacy of the proposed buildings with respect to educational design, location, usefulness for community activities, safety, comfort, and convenience."⁵⁵

An important influence in hastening the use of the school plant as a community center is the growth of interest in adult education, which has been stimulated by the retardation of the migration of rural young people to cities. We are coming to see that in a rapidly changing society, education of children and youth is not enough, but the educative process must go on thru adult life. It is not necessary at this point to set forth the need for adult education,⁵⁶ but it is reasonably certain that within the next generation we shall see a broadly expanded program of public adult education, especially in vocational education, which will use the school plant not only during the day but for many evenings. As this occurs, it will be increasingly important that the school be located in the community, if it is fully to meet its needs.

Summary

Finally, let us briefly summarize our findings with regard to the social setting of the small school system. We have seen:

(1) The preponderance in numbers of the small school systems and their importance not only to rural but to urban society.

(2) That the changing structure of rural society, due to better transportation and communication, has resulted in the growth of the rural community as the basic unit of rural social organization, and that the high school has become the dominant institution in rural community integration.

(3) That there are peculiar social values inherent in the rural community: (a) the stability and solidarity of the farm family and the educative features of farm life; (b) the stability of population of the rural community and the resulting personal acquaintance and intimacy of personal group relations; (c) the larger degree of social control in the rural community resulting from this intimacy;

⁵⁴ Advisory Committee on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

⁵⁶ For the most recent analysis of current trends in rural adult education, see: Brunner, E. de S., and Lorge, Irving, *op. cit.*, p. 218-48.

(d) the relative self-sufficiency of the rural community in times of stress; and (e) because of its concreteness or relative simplicity, the possibility for the individual to grasp the social relationships in a rural community in a more realistic manner than is possible in the large city.

(4) That in the rural community the school has a unique role: (a) the community is an essential unit of the small school system; and (b) the small school system should be planned so that the school may be used as a community center.

If this analysis is valid, then the small school system should be regarded not merely as a mechanism for maintaining the best educational institutions possible, but it should be conceived as the structure within which it may be possible to develop the best type of rural social organization and the finest rural culture. The small school system should not only make possible the best educational program for young and old (or children and adults), but it should make the school a social center for the community and it should take responsibility for helping to build a better rural community, because the community has an essential part in the educational process. Such is the point of view upon which this yearbook is predicated.

CHAPTER II

The School System in the Small Community

IN BEGINNING A STUDY of the small school system, the question immediately arises, "What is a small school system?" For purposes of this study it has been agreed that the concept includes those systems provided in villages, small towns, and communities that range in population from approximately 500 to 5000, but with special emphasis upon community centers of about 2500 in population.¹ Attention is likewise called to the fact that the small school as here considered includes the program, procedures, and technics of the whole system from the kindergarten to Grade XII, inclusive, and does not purport to place emphasis upon any one division to the exclusion of others. The term "small school" when used thruout this yearbook is to be understood as applying to those elements of organization, content, and procedure applicable in the instruction, supervision, and administration of the entire program of formally organized education in small communities.

The success and completeness of the educational program depend upon a sound underlying philosophy of the purposes to be attained as well as a clear understanding and appreciation of the problems and opportunities inherent in the small school situation. A discussion of those factors important to the success and improvement of the small school follows.

The Small School a Community School

As community life in America takes on a new significance, it is in turn demanding an educational program that is adapted to its needs and best interests. Hart has well stated the significance of the community in the total education of the child:

The true educational agency is the community within which and by means of which the individual comes to whatever maturity he reaches. By and large, the qualities of that community will be reflected in its members, variously, of course, as they have various capacities for responding to its impacts, and as they touch various facets of its existence. The real problem of education, then, becomes that

¹ According to the United States Census classification, a place which has fewer than 2500 inhabitants is considered rural.

of *making a community* that shall be expressive of humanity, present and to come. . . .

The problem of education is the problem of community-making, in the most fundamental sense of the term. The problem of the school is merely a chapter in that more inclusive problem. School is important. But an *unrelated school*—a school that is unacquainted with, or indifferent to, the world within which it is attempting to operate, the world from which its “pupils” come each morning and to which they must go back evenings—is an impertinence. A school that compels children to become “pupils” for some hours each day is in the long run an immoral institution. The vitalities of life are in *communities*, not in *institutions*!²

The school, therefore, must perform a special function in promoting the common welfare of the community. The interdependence of the school and community in the educational process is being stressed by many recent writers in rural education. Thus, Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom say:

The responsibility of the school in the future should be conceived in terms of the larger needs of the community: (1) the school should understand the community of which it is a part—its strengths, its weaknesses, and its needs; (2) the school should take the leadership in promoting the welfare of the community thru other agencies as well as thru its own program; (3) this leadership implies that the school should cooperate with other agencies in studying and appraising the community; (4) the school should also cooperate with other agencies in coordinating community activities and life; (5) the school thru its staff, pupils, program, and facilities should enrich other community activities immediately and directly.³

Unfortunately, such attitudes and ideals are not universal even in small communities. In an atmosphere where size, number, and “bigness” are the criteria, education, like business and industry, is bound to become mechanized. An attitude inevitably prevails which ignores the potent guiding force of the personal touch. Under these conditions there is little integration of personality, and an education that does not move toward such integration is merely training or schooling. With such ideals confusion exists in the schools as in society between imitation and originality, between standardization and integration, between uniformity and unity. If village life in America is as significant as the facts in the preceding chapter show, then there is much to be said for each community’s having its own

² Hart, Joseph K. *A Social Interpretation of Education*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1929. p. 427-28.

³ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. See all of Chapters 1 and 18.

school,⁴ staffed with teachers especially trained to handle procedures which enable a proper application of an enriched curriculum to the personal needs and differences of its pupils.⁵

2 Purposes and Functions of the Small School System

Schools in small communities, like educational agencies elsewhere, should provide opportunities for the growth of the individual into effective and constructive membership in society. One of the greatest contributions of educational psychology in the last half-century was the recognition of individual differences in all types of characteristics including rates of learning. This, more than anything else, has focused the attention of the school upon the child's interests, abilities, and needs. The chief purpose is no longer the injection of some specific doses of subjectmatter into all pupils of the same grade, regardless of their experience and ability, but rather in providing "experience consciously designed to create individuals whose values and understanding lead them to cherish a way of life that shows an active desire for the progressive extension of common concerns among all men."⁶ Among other objectives, therefore, will be the full development and continuous improvement of the child's character, physical and mental health, emotional stability, social judgment, and physical, mental, and occupational efficiency. Thus equipped, young people will be prepared to share, operate, and extend the common concerns that make up the pattern of American democracy.

If a school is to attain the above-named objectives, it must mirror the desirable conditions of, and be directly responsible for, building and maintaining community life. There must be an intimate relationship between the "doing" life of the community and the educational program. The rural community may thus become a real factor in the life of children. The early New England town and the Greek village once furnished such a pattern. Engaging in activities of serious adult concern was a normal part of child life. Children were educated to adult adequacy by growing up in an adult world. They felt the community mind, they sensed its demands. Step by step they

⁴ This statement refers to the socially and economically complete community which is capable of providing adequate education. It does not argue for the continuation of many of the existing small school districts.

⁵ Broady, Knute O. *Enriched Curriculums for Small Schools*. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1936. 249 p.

⁶ Everett, Samuel, editor. *The Community School*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. p. 50.

took on the habits and attitudes that enabled them to share, operate, and shape the cultural pattern and the social judgment of their respective time and place. There was an educative unity about the community itself. The values that come from the sense of being one with the community are of primary importance. Education out of touch with the fullness of community life fails to partake of the emotions and attitudes that are essential to wholesome mental development. The forces and agencies of the community must, therefore, become areas of realistic social participation and not merely objects to be studied. While no one would wish to deny the importance at times of a judicious detachment from the scene of action for the pursuit of learning, the full conditions of wisdom are revealed only in action. Life must have wholeness, and the program of the small school system must have a wholeness of pattern if youth are to find meaning and positive guidance in living. This means that the educational program must touch the community at every point.

What children learn in school must be fused with what they do outside—with the people they see and talk to, with the surroundings in which they live, and with the activities in which they engage. The total environment of learning must be considered. Curriculums and activities must be built not only into the life of the community, present, past, and future—and from that into the larger units of state, nation, and the world—but in addition, the school needs the help of adults not officially connected with it. There are certain phases of education which the school alone cannot accomplish. The doctor, the lawyer, the businessman, the laborer, and the homemaker—all citizens of the community—must be brought to understand and appreciate that they have an educational obligation beyond merely paying taxes. There must be not only workable plans for what we are often pleased to call “cooperative education”—that is, an educational program the practical application of which is carried out at the home of the child or in industries or activities elsewhere in the community—but also an alertness on the part of all adults to the need of child development. It includes not only the constructive efforts of teachers and pupils but also the utilization, at least in some degree, of the brains, skill, and help of laymen who do the worthwhile things in the community. When as individuals and as groups the community participates in the entire educational program, the small school becomes a community school and, therefore, ideal.

Advantages Inherent in a Small School Situation

It is a fallacy to assume that a small school system must necessarily be a poor one. Such an assumption is perhaps influenced in a large degree by the fact that for several decades the rapid expansion of industrial centers has held public attention. Urban life was believed to be far superior—a belief that was supported by the fact that each year thousands were induced to leave the small communities to seek opportunities in the cities. Even the fact that thousands from rural communities found themselves living in undesirable conditions in large cities did not stop this migration. Size, number, and quantity frequently became the symbols and criteria of success and progress in many phases of American life. Nor has education escaped the pressure of these forces. Too often educators, like others, associated bigness with goodness. Called upon to meet difficult problems and desiring to do things in a big way, many small school executives did not take time to capitalize the unique advantages of their situation or to develop administrative procedures suited to their own conditions. They assumed that because procedures were successful in big cities they could be applied with equal efficiency in small systems. In fact, a small school came to be looked upon as a miniature large school. Frequently, direct imitation of the activities of large school systems was accepted and hailed as efficiency.

Success even today is often measured by the enrolment, size of plant, and the number of procedures similar to those employed in large places. Textbooks have been adopted, classroom procedures have been instituted, and administrative regulations have been defended with no better reason than, "All the big cities are doing it." Buildings, classrooms, shops, laboratories, and playgrounds have too often been patterned after those found in large population centers. Many educators have failed to recognize the fact that the media for accomplishing the objectives of small school systems are frequently different from those of large systems.⁷ Waste and inefficiency can be accounted for by the failure to recognize that plans and equipment desirable in large units are often not feasible and are sometimes actually injurious when applied in smaller schools. This

⁷ See: Stuart, M. H. "What Should Be the Size of a Secondary School for Maximum Efficiency?" *School Life* 14: 191-93; June 1929. ¶ Roemer, Joseph. "The Weaknesses of the Small High School." *Peabody Journal of Education* 6: 37-43; July 1928. ¶ Ferriss, E. N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. R. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. 236 p.

thinking on the part of educators has been reenforced by the fact that large schools receive nationwide publicity often associated with important and well-known personages who express themselves on educational questions and who are more often represented in state and regional conferences. Small school systems can and should learn many things from the experiences of large city systems, but to follow uncritically their practices and standards without carefully examining them as to their fitness is unjustifiable.⁸

Furthermore, if one believes that excellence is inherently related to size, thought and effort are applied alone to discovering ways and means of increasing the size of the school, and other ways of improving educational opportunity are overlooked or considered impossible. This point of view usually leads to the conclusion that the *only* approach to the problems and deficiencies now prevalent in small systems is the elimination of small schools themselves. Perhaps the greatest obstacle to the development of proper organization, administration, and classroom procedure is the tendency to accept the notion that small schools are nothing more than large schools in miniature. Existing difficulties and deficiencies are then considered inherent in the organization rather than the result of a lack of research on the problems. Smallness under such conditions too often is considered a quality undesirable in itself.

There are many advantages to be found in the environment of the school in the small community. Those teachers, administrators, and schoolboard members who will familiarize themselves with these elements and devise ways and means of incorporating them into the educational program, will render a great service to their respective communities and to public education and at the same time win professional recognition for themselves.

In securing information for the respective sections of this year-book, the superintendents of small school systems in different states were asked to list or describe two unique advantages which make educational work in their systems especially worthwhile to teachers and to pupils. Among those opportunities most frequently pointed out as more closely related to, and possible of realization in, small communities were the following:

⁸ See: Seyfert, Warren C. "Imitation and Discrimination in Administering the Small Secondary School." *School Review* 45: 28-37; January 1937. ¶ Platt, Earl T. "Curriculum Enrichment for the Small High School." *School Review* 42: 121-28; February 1934. ¶ Platt, Earl T. "A Survey of the Smaller Secondary Schools." *School Review* 42: 310-12; April 1934.

(1) *Opportunity for intimate acquaintanceship among pupils, parents, and teachers which if recognized may lead to a more effective cooperation in the fulfilment of the joint responsibilities of school and home in promoting all-round growth of boys and girls*—In the small community, teachers can more easily come to understand the pupil as a whole and the community life in which he lives. The pupil-teacher relationships are more intimate because teachers have contact with their pupils daily, not only in one class but in several. The teachers have an opportunity to know the ability and interests of the pupil, also his family, his out-of-school life, and the agencies that make up community life. Here the teacher lives in the neighborhood. He takes part in the same community activities in which the child and parent engage. He gets his mail at the same post office, makes his purchases in the same store, and often goes to the same church. Everyone is known in a personal way. By knowing firsthand the family, background, surroundings, and home and community life of the child, it is easier to guide and direct learning. In large school systems, more elaborate machinery is necessary to secure individual data and even then it frequently lacks the reality of personal acquaintance. Much of what is lacking in facilities and material equipment in small systems is compensated for by intimate, personal contacts between the teacher, the learner, the family, and the public in general. If we look upon education as personal guidance, the small community furnishes a setting for an ideal educational program.

(2) *There is possibility of a prolonged period of contact between pupils and teachers which, if provided, will furnish an advantage in facilitating continuous directed growth*—Teachers not only have their pupils in many classes each school day, year after year, but also in extracurriculum and community activities. In small communities, pupils can often be under the personal influence and direction of a teacher or group of teachers for several years, and sometimes thruout the entire educational period. It should be kept in mind that many if not most small communities have not realized the possibilities along this line. Just as personal relationships furnish immediate opportunity for better guidance in learning, so a prolonged period of school and community experience under the intimate leadership of one or a few teachers provides unusual opportunities for children to develop at least unified character. Small community life furnishes the teacher, both in and out of school, a greater oppor-

tunity gradually to place certain responsibilities upon the pupil and to see to it that they are willingly and faithfully met by the pupil as a co-worker with schoolmates, teachers, and parents for a common good. Attitudes and ideals such as a sense of duty to other members of a social group or a sense of individual responsibility for the good of the school or community not only make a better school and community but also make a finer character and a balanced personality.

(3) *The total learning environment can be more readily capitalized in a small community*—A closeness of the school to the whole community makes it easy to correlate the classroom activities with the immediate life of the community and community sources for learning. The school can more easily join with the rest of the community in providing suitable educational experiences where organizations are small and closely knit. In the small town there is a better opportunity, therefore, for pupils to grow up seeing the community as a whole and identifying themselves with it. While it is true that in many places education has not had a direct relation to the community itself, the experiences of some testify to the unusual opportunity presented to build their curriculums and activities into the life of the community. Not only are pupils welcome and invited as visitors to the different types of industry and business, and government and social agencies, but these elements are utilized as a series of carefully planned educational experiences.

For example, the students in one small town made a survey of the sidewalks and made recommendations and suggestions for future action. As a result of that study, when the officials in the town desire to put down sidewalks, they now ask the mathematics classes to survey each project and submit estimates and information upon which to take official action. In another small city, a study of accidents over a five-year period was made by a sixth-grade class. Certain causes were pointed out and danger points located. As a result, the city council took action to expend funds on grading, installing stop signs and safety devices, as well as requiring owners of private property near the danger points to trim shrubbery and hedges that seemed unnecessarily to increase the danger at those respective points. Not the least important element in this learning situation was the fact that official action was based upon the information and suggestions submitted by the school children. The children in still another small

community made a study of housing conditions as compared with other places. When their study was completed, a group of businessmen asked them to present and discuss the findings and to suggest plans for improving the situation in their community. Pupils thus contributed effectively to the betterment of the community as well as to their own development. In different sections of the country, small towns report projects in which prominent dairy farmers, beet and potato growers, storekeepers, mechanics, professional men, and even the leading cooks and housekeepers are utilized in enriching the educational program and making it more realistic. Likewise, the schools in several small towns with limited public libraries have made available to the entire community, during the summer months, many of the more readable books of their libraries. During the fall and winter months the patrons in these respective communities have in turn willingly made available to the schools not only books from their own private libraries but their farms, businesses, and local agencies as a community laboratory and an aid to the educational program.

When every resource of the community is looked upon as a means of enlarging the educational experience which the school affords, pupils gain a true grasp of the significance and nature of community life as a whole. The attitudes, ideals, and mores of a community are all very important in developing personality and in the socialization of the individual, and laymen as well as teachers contribute to the education of the youth. The school becomes the community as it thinks and acts. Educators in small communities are rapidly taking advantage of the possibilities in utilizing the educational resources peculiar to the local environment for teaching purposes and in enriching the curriculum. Communities are more and more providing outside the walls of the school many experiences that contribute to the development of good character and citizenship. Furthermore, as an integral part of the community the school readily joins with all desirable agencies in the continuous rebuilding and improving of its group life. Participation in the life of the community consequently becomes for all ages a series of educational experiences thru which the individual develops a sense of "belonging" to the group.

(4) *Frequent opportunity for group action of the entire school can lead to self-realization and to the development of desirable social traits*—There are many more opportunities in the school of the small

community for the average and less capable students to participate in a wide range of experiences both within and without the classroom. Unusual ability is not necessary in order to receive recognition. Often talents are discovered and the slow, backward student brought out by giving him a chance to take the leading role in some activity. With more opportunity to understand the children, their home life, and their surroundings, teachers are better able to guide and individualize the instruction that aids in self-realization on the part of each pupil. Pupils are not only given more opportunity to participate in athletics, extra-classroom activities, class exercises, and community life, but they are called upon more often to assume leadership and responsibility in things that count not only in school but in the life of the community. Furthermore, small school systems give a greater opportunity for the mixing of pupils of different ages in the same classroom and on the same playground. The pupils associate daily with boys and girls from kindergarten thru the high school. Life in the small school thus resembles that of a family. Herein lie unique opportunities for the development of character, self-realization, and leadership, and a chance for pupil interests in the affairs of the whole school or whole community to develop unimpeded by cliques or class-consciousness.

(5) *The school in the small community provides greater opportunity for democracy in administration and supervision*—The superintendent and teachers can plan together and there is that frequent personal contact which prevents misunderstanding and promotes a highly effective democratic relationship. Being closer to the teachers, pupils, and the people of the community, the superintendent can devote more time to each individual concerned and avoid group technics which are necessary in large systems. By using the individual approach, pupil growth in service can more readily be achieved and each individual's abilities can be utilized. There is greater opportunity to participate in improving the courses of study, the curriculum, the organization, and the system as a whole. The teacher in the small community is a person of consequence and prestige and does not lose his identity as he does in a large organization.

Perhaps the above elements and illustrations are sufficient to point out the advantages which are more or less unique to the school in the small community. It should not be thought for a moment that the list is exhausted. More could be said, for example, regarding the

superintendents' reports which point out the natural possibilities for recreational programs leading to health, emotional stability, social adjustment, and wholesome use of leisure time. Before these and other advantages can be fully realized, it will be necessary to solve many discouraging problems which the small community faces today, namely: (a) the selecting and retaining of an effective teaching and administrative personnel; (b) the providing of certain services within a reasonable cost; and (c) the supplementing of a social environment now so small that the opportunities to practice the social arts are too often seriously limited.

When the school and communities intelligently undertake to overcome these problems and fully capitalize the above-listed advantages—then will dawn a new day not only for the small school but for democracy, for education will become a process of learning by purposeful participation, and the life of the community will become for all ages a series of meaningful educational experiences. This statement is supported by Chapters III thru VII of the present yearbook.

Some Generalizations for Realizing the Objectives of the Small School System

The school in the small community has potentialities for making social contributions of supreme importance in American life; its peculiar environment requires it to perform a unique function, but these purposes and functions and possibilities cannot be realized in a haphazard fashion. Guiding principles are necessary to give a sense of direction. Among such generalizations significant as guides in the attainment of the objectives of the small school system will presumably be the following:

- (1) The educational program while meeting the present needs of the individual learner should also promote an understanding of social and economic problems of community, state, national, and international significance.
- (2) The administrative organization should be responsive to the changing needs and desires of the children and adults of the community.
- (3) As an integral part of the community, the school should join with all desirable social agencies in the continuous rebuilding and improving of group life.
- (4) The educational resources peculiar to the local environment should be discovered and utilized in the curriculum.
- (5) In the enrichment of the educational program the school should extend

its activities so as to insure thoroughness in the performance of its own unique social functions.

- (6) Instructional procedures and curriculums should be based to an increasing degree upon careful experimental field investigations conducted in small communities.
- (7) The school's obligation includes not only the development of present individual and social human values, but the protection of those values thru attention to the proper conservation of natural resources.
- (8) The evaluation of the work of the school should be in terms of educational and social outcomes in human lives and not merely in terms of the physical plant and its equipment.
- (9) The administrative unit should be large enough in the small community to provide thru adequate financial support, a satisfactory educational program with due regard to natural community interests, both social and economic, enriched curriculum offerings, and competent educational leadership.
- (10) The cost of the comprehensive educational program required by American democracy is a debt eternal which should be shared by the community, the state, and the nation.
- (11) Competent lay and professional leadership is essential for the full realization of the foregoing educational program.

The application of these and similar principles and procedures to the administration and operation of the educational program in small communities will help to solve the following problems:

- (1) How to offer an enriched curriculum which, while oriented in terms of the problems of society, will satisfactorily care for the diversified personal, vocational, and cultural needs of individuals.
- (2) How to obtain and retain properly prepared and qualified administrators, teachers, and other types of school personnel.
- (3) How to provide a functioning educational and vocational guidance program with proper child accounting and adjustment services, including satisfactory articulation between the various educational units.
- (4) How to adapt method and content to the gifted, handicapped, isolated, and part-time pupils and adults as well as to the normal full-time students.
- (5) How to provide for recreation, health, physical education, and the special services of a modern educational program.
- (6) How to obtain necessary and sufficient library, laboratory, and instructional facilities at reasonable cost.
- (7) How to stimulate and develop a program of constructive community cooperation.
- (8) How to provide for in-service teacher-training facilities and supervision.
- (9) How to avoid excessive teacher loads and faulty distribution of teacher assignments and at the same time maintain reasonable per pupil costs.

- (10) How to provide the best procedures for efficient, yet economical, business management of the schools.

The difficulties of small school systems may be summed up in one brief statement. The problem is how to provide a well-rounded, wholesome, and enriched educational program regardless of the size of the community. When genuine intellectual effort is applied to the solution of this question, good results follow.⁹ Progress, however, cannot be made by thinking of school problems in the small community as miniatures of the educational questions facing congested urban areas. The small school is often confronted by dilemmas and conditions not general in urban systems. Many original and novel variations in the procedures, materials, and performance of educational functions are, therefore, not only desirable but necessary if the small school system is to overcome successfully its difficulties and problems and also to capitalize its unusual advantages and possibilities.¹⁰

Basic Concepts and Knowledges Important for Leadership

The management of a small school system becomes a matter to be considered in many aspects which may not be perceptible until we catch the vision of the task to be done. No doubt the retarded progress in a large percent of the small schools today is due to a lack of insight and vision—not only with regard to impediments and difficulties but also their possibilities in the community. Successful administration in small school systems depends upon a sound philosophy, basic knowledge, and a scientific outlook and approach. The development of desirable policies and the making of decisions in administering the educational program of a small community are, in most instances, the responsibility of the superintendent. There are hundreds of choices relative to programs, courses, activities, methods, procedures, organization, personnel, materials, and miscellaneous matters. In a small school system the importance of each practice bulks large and a poor choice often produces unhappy outcomes. Seyfert states, "To no mean degree the mediocrity of the small school can be traced to its failure to recognize the importance attached to such choices

⁹ See Chapters III, IV, V, VI, and VII of this yearbook.

¹⁰ Broady, Knute O.; Platt, Earl T.; and Moomey, Dean. *The Chester Six-Year High School*. Educational Monograph No. 7. Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska, 1935. 84 p. ¶ Ferriss, E. N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. R., *op. cit.*, p. 232-34.

and the dangers implicit in making the necessary decisions on an imitative or catch-as-catch-can basis.”¹¹ Obviously, sane decisions and intelligent discriminations can come only where we have certain fundamental principles and generalizations as guides. These in turn must be based upon a broad understanding of the social and economic conditions prevailing in small communities as well as an appreciation of the basic concepts of the small school.

The small school system is not a small edition of a large school system. To blot out its weaknesses and shortcomings it is necessary, therefore, to do something besides blindly imitating the large schools in as many details as possible. To be successful, a small system must develop in the light of the ideals and aspirations of the people as well as in the light of a clear grasp of the professional concepts of educational administration.¹² If a superintendent does not have exact knowledge as to the distinctive characteristics of the population and the conditions under which the schools are conducted, or if he cannot understand and estimate the social life of the community as expressed in public functions and in the interrelations of home, community, and school, his administrative efforts are bound to be more or less futile. These are necessary to the determination of a sense of direction and to the proper development of educational policies and procedures.

First, the superintendent has much to do with and thru people. He must counsel and guide the teachers in the light not only of educational objectives, but with respect to the local customs and needs. He must modify and adjust tentative plans, organizations, courses of study, and methods of instruction and guidance to meet the social and economic conditions which prevail in his community. He must know what the school is trying to do, where its program is leading, and the most desirable policies to follow. All sound improvement is based upon an understanding of the social, economic, and educational conditions and ideals of the community. By first determining these fundamental conditions and relationships he makes himself indispensable to the school and community. Thru these elements and associations comes that cooperative human effort which moves

¹¹ Seyfert, Warren C. *School Size and School Efficiency*. Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 19. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1937. p. 288.

¹² Soper, Wayne W. *The Small High School*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1071. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1935. 80 p.

mountains of tradition and custom and enables new ideas, new procedures, and new policies to take form. In the last analysis, growth and achievement of the school system come as a result of this human factor.

Second, the superintendent must deal with money: money for teachers' salaries, instructional supplies, equipment, and apparatus; money to pay for materials and buildings; and money to pay for the new types of education, increased attendance, and the improvement of the quality of instruction. We have come in recent years to see the extensive human implications of the problems we have often glibly termed financial. A knowledge of money relationships has much to do with the art of good administration.

Third, in addition to proper professional attitudes and technical skill, an intimate knowledge of certain fundamental laws and relationships in other fields is highly desirable in the improvement of administrative technic. It is a great mistake when those undergoing training acquire only the mechanics of technic and miss all the inspiration that can be drawn from a preliminary knowledge of the vision and philosophy which lead to that technic. For example, beginning school administration students in classes in business administration often feel that all that is necessary is to know how to make a budget. As a matter of fact, the budget is not as important as is the idea of sane budgetary procedure which involves a dynamic philosophy of education, sound educational policies, adequate procedures, and finally, in the light of these, a constant readjustment of the program necessary to serve properly the interests and needs of the children and of the small community. The budget is, after all, merely a financial picture of the educational program showing the source of income and distribution of expenditures. Before you can make it, certain policies relative to qualifications and types of teachers, as well as kinds of education or courses to be given, must be decided. A policy to require as many curriculums as can be adequately handled by the teaching force with available facilities, or a policy to have types of vocational training in addition to academic courses, or a policy to discover and capitalize the educational resources peculiar to the small community will affect the amount of the budget and the way it is developed and presented. All these in turn are affected by the philosophy of education behind the policies. A belief in an activity

program will affect the budget differently than a belief in a program confined only to imparting knowledge without other forms of life experience. The same reasoning applies to a sane outlook with respect to other administrative problems.

Thus, if we are to improve management technics and go beyond the mere mechanics and routine of procedure, we must have not only professional information but also an intimate knowledge of certain fundamental laws and relationships in other fields that are and can be applied to the human and professional problems of administration. To follow blindly any hard and fast rules may lead to unfortunate results, but there are certain common principles which the executive of a small school system can profitably apply to his problem. One or two illustrations will suffice to make this clear. For example, if we can grasp a few of the fundamental laws of dynamics as a basis for management, the philosophies which have to do with money and people as well as the professional elements may be simplified and made clearer. By dynamics we mean that branch of science which deals with matter in motion. After all, in educational work we are not vitally concerned with static things. Let us see how this science of dynamics can help us. Think for a moment of the law of action and reaction simply expressed by the statement, "Every action is followed by an oppositely directive reaction." It is no more a law of dynamics, in the exclusive sense, than it is a law of human relationships or monetary relationships. A superintendent must remember that every action on his part will bring a definite reaction from those with whom he deals. Unfair treatment of teachers or pupils by the superintendent or principal influences a similar reaction on the part of teachers or pupils. Deception begets deception, anger stirs anger, appreciation and respect result in respect. Even the Golden Rule is an inferential expression of this law of action and reaction.

Then there is the law of diminishing returns which is usually claimed by the economists as their own. It is not any more a law of economics in the exclusive sense than a law of human behavior. It operates in all fields of activity and many problems of human relationship can be cleared up by an understanding of the operation of this law. Another interesting and basic physical relationship which helps us to understand human problems is this: "A

substance which recedes before impact will outlast many times a material that resists it." This is an important principle in various religions and philosophies. That this principle is a great force in motivating human behavior can readily be seen in the use made of it in the "sit-down" strikes in this country and the non-resistance tactics in India. A more comprehensive understanding of these fundamental relationships can likewise be used to help formulate a basic philosophy and to stimulate new insight into the development of administrative technic.¹³ This broad outlook, along with the study of the recent professional literature on the small school,¹⁴ will enable the superintendent to grasp the implications involved in the solution of the problems of finance, curriculum-making, personnel management, and instruction, and enable him to develop those generalizations and guiding principles which give a sense of direction and aid in making suitable choices and decisions. Seyfert suggests several such generalizations which can easily be adapted and included along with others the superintendent may set up as administrative aids:

- (1) Preference should be given to an activity which meets the needs of a large number of students rather than to one which represents an educational outlet for a limited number of pupils.
- (2) When an addition to the program of the school is to be made, preference should be given to an activity which adds to the scope of the school's organization rather than to one which duplicates to any substantial degree the purposes of an activity or procedure already in operation.
- (3) Preference should be given an activity or procedure which can be operated satisfactorily by the average teacher rather than to one which demands the direction of an expert for its most effective use.
- (4) Preference should be given an activity or method which is economical of time rather than to one which, tho somewhat more effective, may require substantially more time and equipment for its operation.
- (5) Preference should be given elective courses that are organized on an independent basis rather than to those on a cumulative basis, in view of the need for securing as much flexibility in the program of studies as possible.¹⁵
- (6) In the early years of the secondary school, preference should be given an activity or course which serves the needs of students likely to leave school before graduation as against an activity or course of value primarily to the student preparing for advanced study.

¹³ Cyr, Frank W. "Needed Research on the Reorganization of School Districts in Rural Areas." *Teachers College Record* 38: 293-315; January 1937.

¹⁴ Stoneman, Merle A.; Broady, Knute O.; and Platt, Earl T. "The Small School—a Bibliography." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 270-84; April 1937.

¹⁵ This statement means that when a choice must be made between courses one will be chosen because it has value in itself and not merely because it prepares students for more advanced courses.

- (7) Finally, and in summary, preference should be given an activity or practice which will definitely fill a need in the school's organization as against one for which the need is less well defined, or the primary recommendation . . . that a number of other schools use it.¹⁸

Such guiding principles will be found helpful in the selection of a staff and in the determination of the kind, number, and specific enterprises to be undertaken to achieve best the functions and purposes of the small school system.

Vision and Open-Mindedness Essential

Already a group of educational leaders has caught the vision and accepted the challenge and is now bending its energies to provide the ways and means by which a small school may not only be good, but superior—promoting its functions so effectively that it will become the envy of schools of larger enrolments.

If, however, any large degree of progress is to be made in developing a reliable body of technical and professional knowledge suitable to proper application in the smaller schools, this same insight and vision must become widespread among school people. Superintendents and teachers must re-examine a host of unverified hypotheses and set up those elements of management, organization, and supervision suited to the times and to the conditions of small communities. Educational foundations should awaken to the real need and significance of aiding in the solution of small school problems. More and more of their funds should be made available for research in improving the offerings and the administration of small school systems. Furthermore, if instruction and administration are to be something more than a series of haphazard daily happenings and dull routine tasks, we must depend upon the vision and insight of those trained as teachers and superintendents for these respective positions. This point of view of the small community and the attitude of open-mindedness toward the best ways and means of developing policies and practices are the first essentials in the improvement of instruction and administrative technic in small school systems.

¹⁸ Seyfert, Warren C. *School Size and School Efficiency*. Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 19. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1937. p. 290.

CHAPTER III

The General Program of Guidance

A PROGRAM OF GUIDANCE is much needed in schools in small communities.¹ Altho these schools have a relatively small enrolment made up of pupils with whom the teachers have been acquainted thruout the elementary grades, nevertheless teachers and administrators in many small schools know less about their pupils than do the faculties of large urban schools. Broady states that teachers and superintendents of small schools have not yet taken the trouble to systematize their program of fact collecting, fact recording, and fact interpreting. If the guidance function is to be complete in scope, the pupil must know the opportunities that lie before him and the school must provide a way by which he can achieve his legitimate ambitions. If there is an adequate curriculum and the teachers comprehend the essential nature of guidance and realize that teaching *is* guidance, the machinery for the whole program will be found to be simple and effective.²

Trabue believes that the fundamental nature, desires, and impulses of urban and rural youth are the same; and that if the young people flowing from the country into the city are to compete on equal terms with their city cousins, they must have available in their rural schools just as adequate sources of information about their own qualifications and about the requirements of both rural and urban occupations as are available in city schools. Effective education in either case must begin with the pupil where he is and make progress in those directions that are appropriate to him. Intelligent adjustment,

¹ The Commission acknowledges with thanks the help of the following teachers and administrators in furnishing suggestions and illustrative material for Chapters III and IV: Julia Weber, teacher, Hardwick Township, N. J.; Anne Hoppock, helping teacher, Warren County, N. J.; Helen R. Bailey, principal, Allamuchy, N. J.; Ernest A. Harding, assistant commissioner of education, Trenton, N. J.; Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; Thomas J. Durrell, county superintendent, Cape May Court House, N. J.; Donald M. Eldred, guidance-counselor, Proctor, Vt.; and the following city superintendents of schools: Howard P. Backus, Coulee City, Wash.; R. L. Conway, Mound City, Kans.; J. E. Chester, North Wildwood, N. J.; De Fore Cramblitt, Anacortes, Wash.; U. E. Diener, Van Wert, Ohio; L. Leland Dudley, Amherst, Mass.; Lee Eck, Richland, Pa.; Ernest A. Frier, Jr., Newark Valley, N. Y.; J. B. Beissinger, Pleasant Valley, Pa.; G. W. Green, Sedro-Wooley, Wash.; Austin Landreth, Pendleton, Ore.; Ray V. Laudensleger, Weatherly, Pa.; R. A. Lease, Sycamore, Ill.; Nathaniel N. Love, Ipswich, Mass.; W. E. McCleery, Leland, Ill.; J. L. Oppelt, LaGrange, Ohio; M. W. Perry, Escondido, Calif.; Russell B. Smith, Crestline, Ohio; Julius E. Warren, Newton, Mass.; and C. A. Wolbach, Rumson, N. J.

² Broady, Knute O. "Making a Good Small High School Better." *Bulletin* 22: 39-43; February 1938. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

whether in rural or city schools, must be based upon the carefully determined needs of the individual to be educated.³

In the small school systems as well as in city areas, the teachers, at all levels of instruction, are beginning to feel the responsibility for a program designed to help pupils assume worthwhile objectives, make wise choices in their progress thru life, and develop wholesome personalities. Happily, the returns to the inquiries of this Commission and other reports indicate that the experiments in guidance in small school systems are leading to effective solutions of the problem.⁴

The Need for Guidance in Education

The exercise of the guidance function is not new in educational procedure. Always the best teachers have taught children thru subjects and, even when confronted with inflexible and unrealistic curriculums, have focused their attention upon the needs and purposes of the pupils—but such constructive education has been rare and seldom carefully planned.

General application of planned guidance has become necessary because of two developments affecting the ways of teaching and the aims of education. The first has resulted from the information and skills produced by the more scientific studies of children's mental, physical, and emotional growth. Teachers are now learning the wisdom of observing carefully the unfolding of each child and of employing methods more scientifically designed to meet his needs.

The second development is found in the new and rapidly changing social conditions in which the pupil lives and must prepare to live. The economic problems of production and distribution, the improved facilities for transportation and communication, the crowding of people into the cities, the mobility of the people, the change in the home, the heterogeneity of our population, the specialization in industry, the increase of leisure time, the scarcity of jobs, the breakdown of morale, and the depression following the World War—all these require a complex and varied curriculum and better training for social living, and necessitate careful guidance of each child in

³ Trabue, M. R. "Adjusting Secondary Education to the Needs of Rural Youth." *Bulletin* 22: 8-14; May 1938. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

⁴ Conrad, Sara M. *Evidences of Guidance in Schools in Small Communities*. Master's thesis. State College, Pa.: Pennsylvania State College, 1932. † Brunner, E. de S.; Lorge, I.; and Price, R. G. "Vocational Guidance in Village High Schools." *Teachers College Record* 39: 218; December 1937.

order that he may profit by his experiences and prepare himself for life now and in the future.

The scarcity of jobs and the need for more effective social training require that practically all children attend school thru the secondary level. Because they vary greatly in mental ability, emotional attitudes, physical health, interests, and purposes, the needs of these children cannot be met by prescribed inflexible curriculums, by standards set for all alike, or by generalized methods of instruction. Scientific study of each child must be followed by a corresponding scientific adaptation of instruction to the child's needs.

Each year millions of youth reach the age of employability and shortly thereafter the age of citizenship. To their parents and to the state the guidance and vocational placement of these young people and their successful induction into the responsibilities of civic life constitute a major problem in education.

The cost of human failure in school and out, paid for in both money and unhappiness, is causing much concern. Studies in unsatisfactory child growth and surveys of failures in industry reveal to us that these failures usually involve poor physical, mental, and emotional conditions. Almost always the failure is the result of a complex combination of all these phases of growth. Attributed to the same causes, and undoubtedly resulting in a greater loss to society, are the failures of a great number of children and adults to make the best use of their powers and aptitudes.

The help required to prepare children to meet their present and future individual and social problems makes the major objectives of education, to which we long gave lip-service, a real necessity. Social and individual training thru the development of good character, good physical and mental health, and mental and motor efficiency; the acquisition of desirable interests, initiative, analytical ability, judgment, persistence, and efficient work habits; the development of a wholesome, balanced personality as the child becomes a part of the life around him and that life becomes a part of him, have now become real aims in education. These aims require a flexible and complex curriculum in which the experiences of the pupil can be made meaningful and profitable for him and for society only by the use of wise guidance procedures, and they cannot be satisfied by helping him merely to master the three R's. The problem calls for the study of the individual, for better understanding of his inter-

ests, needs, and capacities, and the organization of the school into rich and varied experiences from which he may, with guidance, emerge into a richer and fuller life.

Altho, as stated in Chapter I, the teacher in the small school system becomes easily acquainted with the pupils and the conditions of the rural community are favorable to the acquisition of family loyalties and good character, it is not safe to assume that there is no need for special attention to the needs of the individual pupil. Here the children, like their contemporaries in the cities, develop health problems, lack social and ethical experience and knowledge, derive little from the environmental opportunities for vocational experience, become emotionally disturbed, acquire provincial attitudes, become poorly adjusted to school and to life, and fail to acquire constructive life interests and motives.⁵ This is particularly true in many villages. Here there is inadequate provision for personnel records and services.⁶

The Nature and Aims of Guidance

Instead of attempting to define guidance, it seems preferable to submit the following characteristics of guidance which have proved helpful in small and large systems. •

(1) Guidance includes whatever the school may do to help each pupil attain the major objectives of education: (a) training for individual efficiency and happiness; and (b) training for the common good.⁷ These two phases of the pupil's development are complementary to each other and represent the complete aim of education irrespective of how they may be broken up into parts or into special objectives.

(2) Guidance consists in helping pupils to set up objectives that are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worthwhile, and of helping them so far as possible to attain these objectives. This definition by Runnels has been amplified by Jones and Hand, who classify such objectives as "central and contributory goals." Concerning central

⁵ Minnesota State Department of Education, *Pupil Personnel Study of Pupils in Minnesota Public Schools*. St. Paul: the Department, 1935-37. Introduction, Parts I and II. ¶ Illinois Education Association, Department of Research, *Our Children's Opportunities in Relation to School Costs*. Springfield: the Association, 1938, p. 7-11.

⁶ Zeran, F. R. "Administration of Guidance in Secondary School." *Bulletin* 22: 10-14; April 1938. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

⁷ "Educational Guidance." *Bulletin of the Public Schools of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey*. December-January 1928-29. p. 4.

goals they state that if life is to be unified and integrated, there can be only one central goal, one dominant system of values for any one individual at any given time. This central goal is the unifying principle around which the more immediate or contributory goals are organized and by which they have meaning. Thus a person may acquire a central goal such as "the improvement of human welfare," or "the acquisition of power." A central goal develops out of experience and may change as the pupil grows.

Contributory goals may be specific and relatively fixed or they may be more general and develop in much the same ways as a central goal. Skills and habits are examples of more or less fixed contributory goals while such objectives as "a desirable home life" or "an occupation" illustrate the more general, changing, contributory goals.⁸

Continuing the idea of the central goal, Strang defines integration of personality as referring to the extent to which experience is selectively incorporated into the individual's habit system. She states that persons acquiring highly unified personality patterns give evidence of a "central core" of personality that dominates behavior. Such personalities have a consistent, persistent, and pervasive quality that permits fairly accurate prediction of their behavior in new situations. Certain boys and girls can be counted upon usually to fulfil their obligations, while others tend repeatedly to be irresponsible.⁹ The acquisition of a "central core" that tends to produce socially desirable behavior is a basic necessity in the development of good character.

(3) Guidance should help the pupil acquire constructive, helpful, and emotional attitudes toward himself and toward society.¹⁰

(4) Guidance should help the pupil to develop his peculiar, socially desirable powers. The term "wholesome personality" does not imply the equal development of all powers by the individual. The product of education should not be a perfectly rounded, symmetrical personality, but one in which peculiar powers are developed to their optimum and, at the same time, such attitudes and traits are

⁸ Jones, Arthur J., and Hand, Harold C. "Guidance and Purposive Living." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 1, p. 3-29.

⁹ Strang, Ruth. "Guidance in Personality Development." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 7, p. 199-200.

¹⁰ American Council on Education, Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process. *Emotion and the Educative Process*. Washington, D. C.: the Council, 1938. p. 1-9.

acquired as may make the use of these peculiar powers valuable to society.¹¹

(5) Guidance should help pupils release their personalities. The ability to give free play to one's ideals and powers probably involves more than the removal of inhibitions; it results from the opportunity to release one's ideals and powers repeatedly and successfully in an atmosphere of friendliness. In such an environment the creative powers blossom and come to full fruition.

(6) Guidance is not something that a teacher does to a pupil. It is a process whereby the teacher builds up in the pupil the desire and power to do something for himself, and whereby the pupil becomes increasingly self-reliant and self-directive.¹²

(7) Guidance is inseparable from instruction.¹³ It should help the pupil to gain from his experience in the curriculum a knowledge of what is worthwhile in the world and what is definitely related to human welfare; and to develop a sense of responsibility for attaining his ideal. Such a field of experience includes the pupil's life outside of school as well as within the school. Instruction, therefore, is a part of guidance.

(8) Guidance considers the pupil as an organic whole.¹⁴ The child does not develop in separate channels labeled moral, social, scholastic, health, and vocational. Vocational guidance is a desirable and necessary phase of guidance but by no means the most important phase. Every experience becomes integrated into the child's entire personality.¹⁵

(9) Guidance is needed by all pupils at all levels. The idea held by many teachers that only a few pupils are in need of sympathetic help and instruction has proved itself untenable. Thirty years ago Charles DeGarmo said that the only pupils in public schools who were receiving a real education were subnormals or incorrigibles. The brilliant pupil may be developing into a helpless introvert; the powerful athlete may be neglecting his vocational possibilities; the versatile youth may be failing to acquire integrating objectives; the

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 206-207.

¹² "Educational Guidance." *Bulletin of the Public Schools of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey*. December-January 1928-29. p. 4.

¹³ Jones, Arthur J., and Hand, Harold C., *op. cit.*, p. 17-21.

¹⁴ Rosecrance, F. C. "Preparation for Pupil Personnel Work." *Educational Trends* 5: 3; January-February 1937. Evanston, Ill.: School of Education, Northwestern University.

¹⁵ Plant, James S. *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937. p. 10-13.

conscientious girl may be building destructive emotionalizations. Many of the children who in past years have been considered perfect by their teachers, have been failing in the satisfactory attainment of the major objectives of education.

If guidance is concerned with the development of the whole child, then guidance should begin with preschool life and continue thruout the pupil's entire school career. Psychiatrists contend that the child's emotional attitudes are initiated during the first three or four years of his life and develop most rapidly during the elementary-school period. If these statements are true, then guidance cannot be limited to the secondary school. Investigations show that many failures of pupils in secondary school and in later life are caused by anti-social attitudes, poor work habits, or undesirable emotional sets acquired in the kindergarten or primary grades. A considerable proportion of the failures of pupils in reading in the first grade is caused by faulty personality traits acquired in preschool years. Therefore, guidance should begin as early as possible, continue until the pupil leaves school, and be continued thereafter either by the school or community to induct the youth into community life.

A Program of Guidance

The following procedures together with advisory personal interviews may be considered as constituting a program of guidance.¹⁶ Each function has been found successfully exercised by schools in small communities and may, therefore, be considered practicable in such schools.

- (1) Providing a curriculum and methods of instruction favorable to the development of good personality.
- (2) Establishing reciprocal pupil-community contacts.
- (3) Encouraging the acquisition of helpful interests and technics.
- (4) Articulating school experience.
- (5) Helping the pupil to understand himself.
- (6) Helping the pupil to understand occupations.
- (7) Inducting the pupil into a job and into community life.

As the pupil progresses, he will need advice given in personal interviews in order to help him profit by his experience.

¹⁶ Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria*. Washington, D. C.: the Study (744 Jackson Place), 1937, See G, "Guidance Service."

Providing a Curriculum and Methods of Instruction Favorable to the
Development of Good Personality

Fundamental to the organization of such a curriculum is an atmosphere of friendliness. Since it is necessary first of all that the curriculum provide for the pupil the opportunity to utilize his native ability and to exercise his interests to worthy ends, a curriculum which prevents him from making the most of himself must necessarily produce an unfriendly atmosphere. A curriculum making possible the acquisition of good character and personality is proposed by the New Jersey State Character Education Committee. Looking upon all the pupil's experiences inside and outside of school as constituting the curriculum, and assuming that the school can and does affect character, this Committee states: "It is idle and worse to suppose that character can be built in any satisfactory fullness apart from action in life and its concrete situations. The school must provide such life, fairly full life too, not at the rawest to be sure but still not too sheltered. Character grows from the successful facing of situations that ever increase in difficulty and complexity."¹⁷

In a three-room school at Allamuchy, New Jersey, the principal, who teaches the grammar grades, realized that there was a relation between the emotional stability of her pupils and their understanding of their environment and interest in it.¹⁸ To her it seemed that one of the conditions most destructive to character was the absence of an interest and pride in one's environment, leading to a feeling of insecurity. Two-thirds of her pupils came from farms and most of them will remain there. After studying the children, she came to the conclusion that they needed to learn about the interesting features of their environment; that they should have a curriculum suited to their needs; that they would profit by new experiences found in visiting interesting scenes; that they needed more social contacts and the opportunity to work in groups. In short, she decided that they needed a friendly atmosphere in which they could grow in a wholesome, balanced way.

Accordingly, this principal devised a social studies curriculum beginning with a study of Indian life in which the neighborhood is historically rich. They studied the local history, visited an Algonquin

¹⁷ New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction, Committee on Character Education. *Character Emphasis in Education*. Bulletin I. Trenton: the Department, 1935. p. 20.

¹⁸ A sound motion picture film has been prepared showing the activity program of this particular school. For further details address Frank W. Cyr, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.



*Let not our town be large, remembering
That Athens was the Muses' home
That Oxford rules the heart of London still
That Florence gave the Renaissance to Rome.*

—Vachel Lindsay.

*Photograph by
Ewing Galloway*

chief, made trips to historic scenes and museums, and wrote scenarios for movies and plays. Later, after studying the history of their environment, they branched out into Colonial and American history. All projects and trips were organized and carried out by committees of the pupils under supervision. Related history was studied in advance and the expenditures for the trips were carefully budgeted. Usually in or around the school, pupils were allowed to work in groups without immediate supervision. The school is rich in other activities. A service club prepares hot lunches, a Four-H Club preserves food to be used in the lunches, a committee of pupils operates a school savings bank involving much business arithmetic, and the school maintains a safety patrol.

Concerning the effect of this more active program the principal reports that the former unfriendly disciplinary atmosphere of the school is disappearing; that the pupils, having found satisfaction in their constructive and cooperative efforts, tend to repeat them; and that they are acquiring happy attitudes and social efficiency. The effect upon the academic work is favorable not only because the activities present a need for their mastery, but because of improved emotional conditions. One boy, slow, disinterested, troubled with bad hearing, lacking in self-confidence, and a failure in seventh-grade studies, became interested in making fire by friction. Because of his success in this endeavor, his emotional attitudes began to improve. Since then he has been doing easy research, has done two years of reading in one, and has made decided improvement in arithmetic. Altho his family moved out of the town last year, the parents pay his board and expenses in Allamuchy in order that he may complete the course in the school where he found himself.

No less striking is the experiment of a dynamic teacher in the township of Hardwick, New Jersey, in a little one-room school in an isolated and hilly part of the country four miles from the nearest town. How this teacher, imbued with the ideal of the Committee on Character Education and inspired by the county helping teacher, diagnosed the needs of the children and planned a curriculum to meet those needs, became a welcome visitor in the homes of the children, entertained the children freely at her own home, and enriched the lives of her pupils, is related by the helping teacher in the second report of the Committee on Character Education.¹⁹

¹⁹ New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction, Committee on Character Education. *Character Emphasis in Education*. Bulletin III. Trenton: the Department, 1938. p. 88-98.

Whether or not the teachers of elementary or secondary grades in larger villages can produce curriculums as realistic as these is problematical. In larger places it is not as easy to relate the curriculum to community life (see Chapter VI of this yearbook). Such subjects as foreign languages and mathematics sometimes challenge the teacher's ability to give them realistic purpose. Nevertheless, much that these rural teachers have done in setting the stage of experience to help pupils improve in personality can be done by teachers anywhere. A comprehensive plan utilizing all curriculum and extracurriculum subjects as fields for the learning of what is helpful and good, has been outlined by the superintendent of schools of Mound City, Kansas.

Establishing Reciprocal Pupil-Community Contacts

Psychiatrists are beginning to emphasize the integration of the individual into the total milieu or environment, and the improvement of the process by which the environment becomes a part of the pupil.²⁰ Toward this end small school systems have made noteworthy progress.²¹

To an appreciable extent this movement has value when local citizens address pupils or a local organization encourages the study of the Constitution or of a civic question. There are, of course, serious dangers of temporary effects and of commercialization. The movement begins to have real value when pupils are given the opportunity to really understand and appreciate community agencies and business thru participation. Pupils are integrated into the environment when individually or collectively they participate in such activities as welfare work, clean-up celebrations, or Four-H Clubs. Projects involving visits to the fire-house, the post office, and the city market help pupils to understand their communities. When high-school pupils, with the aid of the community electrician, repair the school electric generator they are becoming a part of the community life. As they work for the community and come to understand its spirit, the community becomes a part of them.

Perhaps in the near future there will be organized in each small community a council for the planning of the social welfare of all its

²⁰ Plant, James S., *op. cit.*, p. 10-12.

²¹ Beaty, Howard E. *The Use of Community Agencies in the Educational Program*. Master's thesis. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1932.

citizens. If some real part in such an activity could be given to school pupils, they would become correspondingly richer in character and social efficiency.

Encouraging the Acquisition of Helpful Interests and Technics

Often the acquisition of a desirable social skill will help the child toward a better integration of personality. Strang reports the case of a girl who upon entering a new school was not accepted by the social group and became exceedingly unhappy and introspective. Her mother gave her several suggestions, one of which was to find out what other people are interested in and then to enter into their interests. So well did the girl develop these technics that she soon became outstanding in ease and grace and a welcome member of any group. Strang also points out that special efforts are now being made to teach pupils in the primary grades to read well in order to prevent emotional disturbance because of lack of the skill.²² Similarly many teachers are familiar with the cases of pupils who, realizing no satisfaction from the curriculum of the school, find their emotional stability in learning to play a musical instrument or in taking part in a play.

Articulating School Experience

Articulation can be accomplished only by fitting the school's offerings to the pupil's needs so that he may grow steadily and satisfactorily from year to year. Because of the variation in the capacities and rates of development of pupils, it follows that articulation can never be achieved by the establishment of logically dovetailed institutions with standards set for all alike to which the pupil must be fitted. A school procedure that interrupts the continuity of one child's growth and thus constitutes an inarticulation for him, becomes to some other child a challenge that he accepts and uses as a stepping-stone to perhaps the greatest single period of growth in his entire school career. Articulation can be achieved by a school flexibly enough organized to adjust to children's needs.²³

Promotion standards—Such articulation involves the whole question of promotion standards, in which there is a healthy variation in

²² Strang, Ruth, *op. cit.*, p. 222-23.

²³ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Articulation of the Units of American Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1929. p. 181.

practice.²⁴ At Amherst, Massachusetts, the superintendent reports that the administration plans to allow children to go on with their classmates, but thru group and individual help to keep them working at their own achievement levels. In Warren County, New Jersey, a helping teacher reports that there is no fixed grading in one-room schools; that a pupil may participate in reading or arithmetic in the class of a lower grade or of several grades. In Cape May County, New Jersey, the county superintendent reports that promotion is largely by social age groups; that from 95 to 98 percent of the pupils are promoted; and that upon the teacher lies the burden of proof that the pupil will benefit by retardation. In the village of Richland, Pennsylvania, the school holds more rigidly to grade standards involving vital elements of subjectmatter, but maintains a high percentage of promotion by diagnosing the causes of failure and applying constructive remedies. At Pendleton, Oregon, and at Sycamore, Illinois, promotion is by chronological age beginning with the fourth grade, and pupils are passed into the secondary school accordingly.

In general, these plans for promotion are based upon the principle of giving the child the opportunity of valuable social experience and at the same time adjusting the curriculum and instruction to his needs. Contrary to the opinions of some educators and citizens, such a plan, if properly executed, does not lower the quality of the result produced. Experience has shown that it improves the result. There can be no optimum beyond that produced by an emotionally stable pupil working each year to his full capacity.

In the secondary schools the requirements in departmentalized subjects change the whole problem of promotion. It is interesting to note that in many high schools the adaptation of subjectmatter and method to the pupils' abilities and interests has improved the quality of education.

Grouping of pupils—Another problem in adjusting to pupils' needs in small school systems is found in the classification and instruction of normal, very bright, subnormal, dull normal, and physically handicapped children. Altho ability grouping is sometimes adversely criticized, there seems to be general approval of grouping pupils with those whose physical, social, and intellectual maturity enables them

²⁴ Many of the illustrations in the following paragraphs were obtained by a member of the Yearbook Commission thru personal interviews and direct observations in the communities cited.

to live comfortably together, and of some segregation of pupils of very low scholastic aptitude and of very bright children. Naturally the crippled, deaf, and blind require special instruction. So far as possible such segregations should be accompanied by opportunities for participating in some activities with all the children.²⁵

In the rural elementary schools of Warren County, New Jersey, pupils of all levels of ability find opportunities in the projects of the curriculum. Those of low scholastic aptitude are given extra hand-work, are assigned to reading at their respective achievement levels, and participate in clubs. One low subnormal finds much satisfaction in assuming the responsibility for sweeping and for care of the plants, and has made a picture dictionary. Very bright pupils are given rich opportunities in literature, creative composition, weaving, and club leadership.

At Van Wert, Ohio, one mental test is given in the elementary grades and another in the secondary school. Standardized and local objective achievement tests are also administered by the teachers. After consideration of these test results and the pupil's classroom records, the teachers recommend the classification of the pupils into homogeneous groups. Pupils may be transferred at any time that seems best.

At Weatherly, Pennsylvania, the school maintains a special class of about twenty-five pupils who have failed one or more years, taken from Grades II thru VI. They continue part time in their regular classrooms, taking individual work in basic academic subjects in the special class. Here subjectmatter is assigned on the pupils' achievement levels and project teaching is developed. An appreciable number of these children have resumed successfully their regular class work. From the sixth grade these special class pupils are passed into the junior high school where opportunities for a suitable program are provided.

In the case of physically handicapped children there is much need for special service. To aid children laboring with speech defects one county in New Jersey has furnished on Saturday mornings the services of an expert. Instruction in Braille and in lip reading is much needed in small school systems. Sometimes a nearby city main-

²⁵ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 7-9.

tains classes for the blind and deaf. If this is not the case, districts may well combine to establish centralized classes for that purpose. It is possible for a deaf child who has learned lip reading and has progressed thru the elementary grades, to attend successfully a regular high school. If crippled children can possibly attend school, they should be given that opportunity for social experience. In this way some spastic paralytics have been successfully educated. If the crippled child cannot leave the home, the parent or another person may instruct him under the supervision of the school, or the school district may employ a teacher for that purpose. In some states boards of education are required by law to furnish instruction to physically handicapped children.

Individualization of instruction—The adjustment of instruction to the growing child may be furthered by other administrative devices such as the Dalton or Winnetka Plans.

If individualization is to be fully successful, the textbook or textbooks used must be supplemented by materials which make the textbook largely self-teaching, self-motivating, and self-testing. The textbook itself may be of such a nature as those written for use in the tool subjects by Washburne and his staff.²⁶ The assignments made should also facilitate the adapting of the program to individual differences by indicating minimum subjectmatter content for those of lesser ability and enriching activities for those who can do more than the normal amount of work. If every pupil in the room has in his hands these self-directing materials that are supplementary to the textbook or a part of it, the teacher is freed from the necessity of making assignments every day, preparing, giving, and scoring all the tests, or laying the background for the work that is to be done. He can become an individual counselor and helper to be called upon whenever difficulties arise. Thus there may be developed in the pupil a purposeful outlook upon life, a proper emotional stability, and a feeling that the school is helpfully concerned with the whole of his life, not just the academic side of it. Moreover, the subjectmatter itself may be more effectively adapted to the wide and varying range of individual abilities and interests of the boys and girls because of the smaller number under the teacher's care.

Experience of schools that are using individualized materials indi-

²⁶ See for example: Washburne, C. W., and others. *Washburne Individual Arithmetic*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co. 12 books.

cates that the superiority of these materials is most clearly demonstrated in the skill or tool subjects: arithmetic, spelling, writing, reading, grammar, and art. Not all the subjectmatter in these fields should be individualized, nor should all the subjectmatter of the so-called content subjects be taught by group methods. Generally speaking, tho, group instructional technics are preferable for the content subjects and the individual method for the skill subjects. Individualized instructional materials may with minor modifications be adapted as correspondence materials. Correspondence work is needed by pupils who, because of the handicap of distance, poor roads, or physical incapacity, are unable to get to a regularly organized school for all or part of the year. A more thoro consideration of such instruction is given in Chapter VII.

Transfers—Much can be done in the small school system to facilitate the passing of pupils from grade to grade and from school to school. The purposes of such orientation and suggested procedures therefor are given by Bennett in the Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.²⁷

In Warren County, New Jersey, the teacher of the eighth-grade rural elementary school visits the central high school and informs the principal concerning the nature and needs of the pupils recommended for admission. At this conference is presented a report concerning each pupil made out on a mimeographed blank form, giving registration statistics, facts concerning the pupil's home environment, the pupil's rating in class work and in achievement tests, an estimate of the pupil's special aptitudes, a statement concerning his health, a long report concerning his personality traits and social attitudes and efficiency, and facts about his future plans. The sending teacher follows the careers of the pupils in the higher school.

Reciprocally, a teacher from the receiving school should visit the sending grade to give information about the higher school and its curriculum and to become acquainted with the pupils. Parents may well be invited to attend related conferences or special programs.²⁸

Information concerning present and future school and community offerings is usually given in larger schools by the dissemination of printed announcements of studies and handbooks, by lectures to

²⁷ Bennett, Margaret E. "The Orientation of Students in Educational Institutions." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 6, p. 175-95.

²⁸ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *op. cit.*, p. 175-76.

large groups of pupils and parents, by homeroom discussions, and by individual conferences. Special efforts are made to prepare pupils about to leave the elementary school and those about to be promoted within the secondary school. The range of information covers curriculum, extracurriculum, and community opportunities; schedules, procedures, technics, and ideals of school and community activities; and how to study. Often older pupils help to prepare handbooks of mimeographed pamphlets and lead in discussion groups.

In such procedures the small school system has a distinct advantage. The absence of complexity renders unnecessary the expense of so many printed announcements and handbooks, which are after all largely impersonal. The teacher, in close contact with the pupils, may by the use of blackboard, essential mimeographed material, and small group or personal conferences, give valuable help to the pupil.

The problem of guiding pupils in their preparation for college and other higher institutions is being solved admirably in many small school systems. The leadership in such work may be taken by the principal, by a counselor or guide, by a specially assigned teacher, or by a committee of teachers. An adequate program for pre-college guidance includes (a) giving information to students about college, (b) collecting and recording data about colleges and about the student, and (c) guiding students toward college.²⁹ The Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education asserts that the correct guidance approach to the selection of a college or a vocation is to begin early with a study and understanding of the pupil, assist him step by step in his unfolding and development in the life he is living in school and out, and, when the time comes, help him to make his selection of college or vocation in terms of his native ability, interests, and acquired training.³⁰ In such procedures, both the parent and the pupil should be involved. Much of the failure in college and higher institutions could be prevented by proper guidance in the high school begun early and directed toward helping the pupil find a higher school suited to him. Many valuable suggestions may be found in educational literature.³¹

²⁹ Cass, Wilbur D. *A Program for Pre-college Guidance for High Schools Having an Enrollment of from 150 to 500 Pupils*. Master's thesis. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1935.

³⁰ Briggs, Thomas H., chairman. *Functions of Secondary Education*. Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. Bulletin No. 64. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.), 1937. p. 213.

³¹ Jones, Arthur J. *Principles of Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934. 456 p. ¶ Scott, C. W., and Stuit, D. B. *Assisting High School Pupils with Their Educational Plans*. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1938. An unpublished pamphlet.

Helping the Pupil To Understand Himself

There are many facts which a pupil needs to know about himself and which his parents should understand. He needs to know whether he is in good health, is inclined to be an introvert or an extrovert, has ability in acquiring academic and manual skills, is inventive and creative, has good work habits, has a good vocabulary, has reasoning ability in the various subjects of the curriculum, has leadership and followership ability, has good social attitudes and efficiency, has salesmanship or executive ability, and is in general attaining the major objectives of education. Altho psychologists disagree as to whether ability is specific or general, he will need to know that he can probably follow any one of a large number of professions or trades, but that his interest may lead him into a specific choice. He should understand to some degree the significance of his own emotional tendencies and the relative value of the immediate and remote objectives he has assumed.

If all this information were to be acquired at once by the pupil and by his parents the outcome would undoubtedly be undesirable. It is, therefore, preferable that over a series of years the pupil comes gradually to a clearer understanding of his native and acquired characteristics, and that the school guides him in the process of knowing himself. In order to make this possible, the school must necessarily set up machinery for acquiring and recording reliable information.

Health—In helping children to learn about their own health, small school systems have succeeded very well even in spite of economic limitations. At Leland, Illinois, the superintendent has induced the local physician and dentist to donate their services for health examinations. Follow-up work is done by the teachers in connection with health instruction in the various grades. The local physician has completed an immunization program against diphtheria and smallpox. In this campaign the surrounding rural communities are included.

How a combination of districts or towns can provide health service better than many cities is described by the superintendent at Ipswich, Massachusetts. His plan provides for a staff consisting of a doctor and a nurse acting under the direction of the superintendent of schools. Pupils are examined annually and whenever examination by a pediatrician or a psychologist is indicated, the school calls upon experts in state or local hospitals or in the state education and health

departments. The nurse follows up the results of health examinations by home visitations, leaving bulletins of related information. Needy cases such as underweights and tubercular patients are cared for by local philanthropic agencies. The Betts Tele-Binocular apparatus is used for eye tests and the audiometer for ear examinations. A local dentist examines the teeth of each child annually and performs work upon needy children at a nominal fee.

Contributory information concerning mental ability, achievement, personality, character, social efficiency, attitudes, and aptitudes may be secured by the use of standardized objective tests. The results of such tests should be used always in connection with the teacher's personal knowledge of the pupil and his developmental history. There is much available information about various kinds of school tests.³²

Tryout courses—As indicated in Chapter VI, tryout courses have become more possible in small school systems. Such courses as general science, general mathematics, and general shop have a proved tryout value. If the school cannot maintain a general language course, a somewhat better procedure may be found by making the first half-year of any foreign language a tryout without prejudice to the pupil's record. A curriculum with few constants and many variables is highly desirable. Such a plan is recommended by Eldred of Proctor, Vermont.³³

Advantageous opportunities for tryout are also listed by Eldred in extracurriculum and out-of-school jobs. In a graduate thesis Reitz has listed the occupational fields found in a small community as follows: homemaking, merchandising, teaching, clerical work, farming, mechanical work, factory work, building construction, electrical work, journalism, meat retail and butchering, music, medicine and surgery, postal service, transportation, leather, photography, and decorating. This list was made in connection with a survey of the school system of Interlaken, New York, a village of less than 1000 population with contributory rural communities.³⁴ The author makes suggestions as to how school classes, clubs, and out-of-school jobs

³² Jones, Arthur J., *op. cit.* ¶ Eurich, A. C., and Wrenn, C. G. "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 2, p. 31-87.

³³ Eldred, D. M. *A Guidance Program for Small Vermont Schools*. Proctor, Vermont, 1937. An unpublished pamphlet.

³⁴ Reitz, William Walter. *A Vocational Guidance Program Based on the Needs and Resources of a Rural Community*. Doctor's thesis. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University, 1930.

may be utilized for tryout experiences in regard to fitness for any one of these vocational fields.

Self-analysis blanks and checklists covering the whole field of personality traits, interests, and aptitudes are being used considerably in small school systems. In such lists there is often danger of too much introspection and still greater danger of false conclusions by the use of systems of rating intended to be mathematical. At the right time, however, a self-survey of one's personality traits and abilities is undoubtedly beneficial.

As the pupil learns about himself in these and other ways, he needs the sympathetic, wise teacher who does not desire to dominate and who will respect his personality and help him to find his own solution of life's problems.

Helping the Pupil To Understand Occupations

Wise choice of an occupation depends upon the pupil's understanding of both his own aptitudes and interests and the nature and possibilities of various occupations. Such knowledge is of value not only to pupils going directly into business or commerce, but also to those going into higher institutions.

Reitz³⁵ recommended for Interlaken, New York, that vocational guidance activities include also vocational study classes, reading, observational visits to places where vocations are practiced, a survey of the vocations of the community and nearby towns, and counseling on the choice of a vocation. He believes that vocational study classes should be taught by a person specially trained and suggests the outline of Edgerton and Cunliffe for the study of vocations.³⁶

Eldred of Proctor, Vermont, recommends that at least one period a week should be given in the eighth grade to the study of occupations, and that a course in educational and vocational information be given in the ninth grade, including information about occupational conditions, opportunities, and problems, about the social outlook upon various occupations, and about the working conditions in various occupational groups. He recommends further that much similar study should be included in the various school subjects and that

³⁵ Reitz, William Walter, *op. cit.*

³⁶ Edgerton, A. H., and Cunliffe, R. B. "A Public School Program for Collecting and Using Occupational Information." *Vocational Guidance and Vocational Education for the Industries*. Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1924. Chapter 5, p. 121.

much more specific information should be included in a course given in the eleventh grade. Here the choice of occupations to be studied should be based upon the interests of the pupils and concerned with vocations in which they are likely to be engaged in the community in which they live. He suggests that such instruction be given one period a week in social studies or English courses, and that in the senior year one period a week be used for assistance in personal problems, such as arranging for admission to other schools or securing employment.³⁷

The superintendent of Anacortes, Washington, reports occupational talks and "vocational auditing" in the twelfth grade. Vocational auditing involves working or observing in local industries or business without pay or responsibility. At Escondido, California, the superintendent reports the fusion of instruction in English and vocations over a period of three years. The superintendent at La-Grange, Ohio, reports a class in vocations given in alternating years in the ninth and tenth grades. At Sedro-Wooley, Washington, guidance for the tenth grade includes the discovery of vocational interests and for the twelfth grade the selection of life occupations. At Pleasant Valley, Pennsylvania, instruction in occupations is given by the teacher of civics.

The levels at which occupational information should be acquired, by whom it should be taught, and how classes in other school subjects should be involved are all moot questions. It may be well to remember that such instruction may defeat its own purpose unless the interest of the pupil is aroused. For this reason it may be best that important work in the study of occupations be deferred until the year preceding the pupil's withdrawal or graduation from school.

In a larger school system where nearly all pupils continue thru the senior high school, the special guidance workers developed successfully a plan for Grades XI and XII, including a series of preparatory programs followed by a series of occupational conferences. First, the plan was submitted to the homeroom teachers involved and to the pupil representatives of the eleventh-grade council to stimulate discussion in homerooms. Conferences were held with the librarian and with teachers of English and art. The pupils studied college admission blanks and self-analysis questionnaires. Kitson's motion picture,

³⁷ Eldred, D. M., *op. cit.*

"How To Choose a Vocation," was presented in the auditorium. The pupils composed a radio script and presented it in a program entitled "From School to Work." Pupils in the homerooms indicated the vocational fields in which they were interested.

This preparation was followed by a series of occupational conferences at intervals of about one week, concerning the following general fields: engineering, home economics, science, business administration, journalism, nursing, business, trades, teaching, aviation, industry, and merchandising. Speakers of recognized experience and ability were chosen. Both speakers and pupils were prepared for the conferences. Admission was by ticket and the number of admissions to each conference was limited. Many parents of participating pupils attended.³⁸

Many other technics for helping pupils to gain information concerning occupations have been used profitably.³⁹ The magazine *Occupations* brings to vocational guidance workers many of the best methods and the newest testing and counseling aids. Recent occupational monographs by the federal Office of Education, the United States Employment Service, the National Occupational Conference, the Institute for Occupational Research, and by private publishers provide an abundance of information about occupations. The *Occupational Index*, published by the National Occupational Conference, furnishes current information regarding vocations.⁴⁰

Inducting the Pupil into a Job and into Community Life

Isolated in many ways from the life of the community, too often the pupil is so busy with school activities that he is graduated relatively ignorant of the social-civic problems of life. He belongs to no adult community groups and participates in few community activities. Often he has had no training to prepare him for placement in a vocation or for applying for a job. The problem of induction into community life includes not only finding work but also the transition from school into the community life.⁴¹

³⁸ Hayner, G., and Smith, H. *Report Concerning Instruction in Occupations*. South Orange, N. J.: Columbia High School, 1938. Unpublished.

³⁹ Allen, R. D. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1934. 420 p. ¶ Jones, Arthur J., *op. cit.* ¶ Koos, L. V., and Kefauver, G. N. *Guidance in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. 640 p.

⁴⁰ American Association of School Administrators. *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1938. p. 195-96.

⁴¹ Edgerton, A. H. "Guidance in Transition from School to Community Life." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 8, p. 229-48.

In small school systems the work of vocational placement and follow-up falls largely upon the principal or superintendent and teachers. In somewhat larger systems, such as those having consolidated schools, there may be a trained guidance counselor. If no expert is employed, the work may be assumed by a commercial teacher for placement in business or by an industrial arts teacher for placement in industry. Either informally or formally the teacher responsible can do much good by helping pupils to find employment and by following them up in their new work. There is too little evidence of such guidance work in schools generally.⁴²

If the curriculum has been related closely to the community life and wise guidance has been provided, the transition from school to life will be greatly simplified. There is great need of an agency in every community which will encourage adults to enlist youth in all the worthwhile civic activities of the people, thereby giving our young people the opportunity to become acquainted with the ideals and projects of the community and to prepare themselves for constructive leadership and followership.

Such a program of guidance as that outlined above may meet with the approval of administrators of schools in small communities, but the administrative organization necessary to carry out the program presents a real problem. The questionnaire returns brought many requests in regard to how to put plans for guidance into practice. For this reason the next chapter is devoted to the organization and administration of guidance.

⁴² A study guide booklet of interest to superintendents and laymen is *Guidance—A Community Approach*, issued by the Iowa State Department of Education, 1938, 47 p.

CHAPTER IV

Organization and Administration of Guidance Programs

THE PRIMARY RESPONSIBILITY for guidance devolves upon teachers, principals, and superintendent.¹ Such staff officers as psychologists, psychiatrists, doctors, dentists, and nurses should aid those who carry the responsibility. "It is good administration to distinguish between the line of responsibility exercised by those who carry the educational program thru to a successful conclusion and the function of those who enter the situation at the request of administrative officers, teachers, or other employees to render the special service which they have to offer."²

Organizing the Personnel

If guidance cannot be separated from instruction,³ then the subject teacher is in the most advantageous position for guidance work. The teacher of elementary grades not departmentalized finds little administrative interference with the assumption of this responsibility. As he instructs the pupils in all subjects and watches over their growth, he is able to set the stage of learning and to guide the pupils to more effective living.

In the secondary schools, even of small school systems, departmentalization by subjects has interfered with the "child-mindedness" of the teacher. An appreciable remedy for this difficulty has been found by placing these same teachers in charge of homerooms, where daily they are able to observe the whole child. With this idea in mind, administrators have wisely designated the homeroom teacher as the person bearing the main responsibility for guidance. As a result, many homeroom teachers have done noteworthy work and have been inspired to carry out in their regular classrooms the principles of guidance. In some respects, however, this theory fails in actual operation. Teachers often possess little knowledge of the school's opportunities, of requirements for admission to higher institutions, of vocations, of differences in pupils, of mental hygiene, of

¹ This chapter is based almost wholly upon the field observations and interviews conducted by one member of the Yearbook Commission.

² National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 70.

³ Jones, Arthur J., and Hand, Harold C. "Guidance and Purposive Living." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 1, p. 17-21.

health problems, and of the philosophy of education. They also vary in their own ability and personal qualifications to give guidance. For these reasons they need the assistance of an adjustive, compensating, directive organization to make up for their divergent points of view and even for their deficiencies.⁴ To meet this need, trained counselors, grade guides or advisers, deans, or principals may be designated.

Another way of overcoming the unfortunate effect of departmentalization is to assign a group of pupils to one teacher who for three or four successive years will instruct them in a core-curriculum and act as their guide. Such teacher-guides may be assisted by the teachers in charge of the pupils in elective subjects. If, in addition, the core-curriculum were made to include occupational information and personality problems, there would be less need for life-career courses or detached group guidance.⁵ This plan would not, however, do away with the necessity for the adjustive, compensating, and directive service of a specialist, dean, grade chairman, or principal.

The responsibilities usually assigned to various workers in a departmentalized organization have been outlined by many educators.⁶ Such assignments are of practical value, but experience has proved that any inflexible arrangements lead to frequent inefficiency. Some overlapping is unavoidable.

A summary of the roles of guidance leaders (grade advisers or guides) and of guidance specialists is given by Rosecrance.⁷ He maintains that the guidance leaders should have the training and experience necessary to help and to educate teachers, to act as administrative organizers and coordinators and as liaison officers between educative agencies affecting the pupil. By "guidance specialists" are meant such workers as visiting teachers, psychologists, psychiatrists, doctors, nurses, social workers, and vocational experts. Upon these specialists he places the responsibility of educating teachers, acting as consultants, and handling some cases directly. Undoubtedly the most important duty of these experts is to educate

⁴ Briggs, Thomas H., chairman. *Functions of Secondary Education*. Report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. Bulletin No. 64. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.), 1937. p. 215.

⁵ Jones, Arthur J., and Hand, Harold C., *op. cit.*, p. 26-27.

⁶ Allen, R. D. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1934. p. 150.

⁷ Rosecrance, F. C. "The Staff Needed for the Development of an Effective Guidance Service." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 10, p. 267-90.

the teachers and guidance leaders in the better ways of dealing with children. By discussing clinic cases with teachers and principals, and by lectures and conferences, the staff specialist can bring the principles of guidance to bear upon the making of the curriculum, the administration of the school, and the method of working with pupils.

From these conclusions drawn from larger school systems, it is apparent that the small school system has a distinct advantage in organizing for guidance. In small communities the teachers are familiar with the pupil's home and out-of-school life, and have an unusual opportunity to observe the child's growth as a whole. Here the curriculum can be more readily related to life and instruction becomes more easily a guidance procedure. Here without the aid of artificial organization the teachers may invite the cooperation of parents and of the leaders of other educative agencies in helping any pupil in need.

At the elementary level of the small school system, guidance is usually provided by the teachers and the principal; in the secondary school by the principal and teachers with a special committee of teachers or a guidance leader to provide the coordinating and more expert service. At this level the subject teachers, homeroom teachers, and club sponsors assume much of the same duties as in larger systems. Most communities employ a school physician. Sometimes other specialist service may be drawn from the community or from county and state institutions. In consolidated schools the number of teachers may be large enough to warrant the appointment of guidance helpers or grade advisers and of some staff specialists. Such specialists might include a psychiatrist, a psychologist, a visiting teacher, or an expert in speech defects and reading. Several districts may unite in employing one or more specialists or the county organization may furnish them. If, however, no specialists are available the teachers and principal are nevertheless able to perform in appreciable degree the most important guidance services. They can organize and administer a curriculum rich in opportunities for the development of good character and personality; promote the integration of the pupil's personality into the life of the community; encourage pupils to acquire helpful interests and technics; articulate the various levels of the school system; help the pupil and his parents to understand his personality, interests, and aptitudes; help the

pupil to acquire information concerning occupations;⁸ and help to induct the pupil into a job and into community life. The absence of staff specialists will undoubtedly make the work more difficult and somewhat less efficient, but the advantage inherent in the small school situation may offset some of this loss and the improvement will be noteworthy.

In such a case teachers will find help in studying mental hygiene, physical health, character education, remedial reading, correction of speech defects, tests and measurements, and other subjects related to guidance. One or more teachers in a faculty may concentrate on any of these fields. Altho for a teacher to prescribe in a serious mental hygiene case is dangerous, the teacher may safely apply recognized principles of mental hygiene in building courses of study and in determining methods of instruction. Many teachers have learned to administer with success various kinds of objective tests, to apply general remedies for speech defects, and to devise practical methods for the improvement of reading.

Much improvement of the guidance work in all schools would result from the better selection of teachers, changes in the pattern of training, and provisions for in-service training as suggested in Chapter XI of this yearbook. Teacher-training institutions and boards of education may well consider the teacher's personality and emotional health. In the training institutions unrelated courses in psychology and physiology may well give way to an integrated course in child development. Teachers should know more than they now do about recent developments in such fields as nutrition, endocrinology, medicine, psychology, social work, psychiatry, and the emotions.⁹ For those already in service further training should be provided. While attending the teacher-training college, the prospective teacher lacks the experience to understand much about the problem child. After teaching two or three years most teachers would profit by a course concerning the difficulties of maladjusted children.¹⁰

Any attempt to organize personnel for guidance without including the parents and leaders of other educative agencies will prove only partially successful. School administrators, teachers, specialists,

⁸ An illustration of how this can be done thru a community survey made by the pupils themselves is described in: Gooch, Wilbur I., and Miller, Leonard M. "Rockland County's Self-Survey." *Occupations* 14: 394-410; February 1936.

⁹ Rosecrance, F. C., *op. cit.*, p. 284-85.

¹⁰ Plant, James S. *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937. p. 293.

parents, church workers, scoutmasters, playground directors, and even the pupil's associates are all concerned in his welfare. The leadership among all these people may be considered as democratic. "The wise parent who insists that the school shall give his child experiences which will train him for present or assured future experiences; the understanding teacher who works out for his classroom an improved technic of instruction or guidance; the able administrator who sees educational objectives clearly and sets up a guidance organization which shall help in attaining them—each of these in turn shall lead. Provision for stimulating and capitalizing the creative contributions of all concerned is an absolutely necessary part of leadership in broadly conceived educational guidance."¹¹

Bringing Guidance to the Pupil

Advising pupils individually has become known as individual guidance; working with pupils in groups, as group guidance. Each method of procedure has its advantages and each may become wasteful of time or ineffective in a given situation. Many problems confronting the pupil are of such a personal nature that they should not be discussed in groups. Sometimes the individual conference is necessary in order to help the pupil face his problems and choose a wise solution. Every pupil should be able to find someone in the school faculty to whom he can go in confidence to discuss personal problems. That faculty member may be one not concerned directly with the instruction of the pupil.

On the other hand, proponents of group guidance argue that the ultimate guidance is self-guidance; that what the pupil needs as he grows older is more instruction concerning the facts involved rather than too much individual advice; and that to deal with all pupils individually is a waste of time. In the solution of character problems they feel that it is often desirable for the pupil to get the benefit of group discussion and to feel the group influence; and that often group discussions keep him from feeling that he is different from all other pupils. The following major areas of group guidance are listed by Allen and Bennett.

- (1) Orientation in new school situations.
- (2) Planning a well-balanced program of learning experiences.

¹¹ "Educational Guidance." *Bulletin of the Public Schools of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey*. December-January 1928-29. p. 16.

- (3) Improving learning technics—study methods, use of the library, and other school facilities, social and athletic skills.
- (4) Improving personal adjustments and social relationships.
- (5) Self-appraisal and wholesome self-development.
- (6) Formulating suitable life goals and projecting well-balanced life plans.
- (7) Choosing activities and evaluating experiences directed toward the achievement of tentative goals.
- (8) Developing a growing system of values or life philosophy.¹²

In the small school system as well as in larger units, the teacher and administrator must choose between individual and group guidance in solving a particular problem. They may decide to use both methods, or one or the other. Only common sense can determine the best approach. In a one-room elementary school operating a realistic curriculum and providing opportunity for individual and group activities, the daily life of the school provides immeasurable opportunities for individual and group guidance. Such a school will need less of the formalized group guidance which in problems of personality, social attitudes, and character might easily become unrelated, "cold storage" education. In the secondary schools of small school systems where more or less departmentalization exists, the administrator will need to determine the relative degrees of individual and group guidance necessitated by the nature of the curriculum, the class load, the available guidance workers, and other factors. In general the administrator should consider whether the situation is real, whether there will be a value in the pooling of opinions, whether the lack of time requires group consideration, and whether such group discussion is necessary to develop the self-reliance of the pupil.

A vital necessity of any guidance program is that there shall be for each pupil one person or one group of persons whose responsibility it shall be to observe his unfolding and to see to it that the school shall help him attain the objectives of education.

Some Programs of Guidance in Operation in Small School Systems

The guidance programs selected for detailed treatment in this chapter were chosen because the schools are situated in small com-

¹² Allen, R. D., and Bennett, M. E. "Guidance through Group Activities." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 5, p. 171.



*It is my dream to have you here with me,
Out of the heated city's dust and din—
Here where the colts have room to gambol in,
And kine to graze, in clover to the knee.*

—James Whitcomb Riley.

*Photograph by
Harold M. Lambert*

munities, have a small enrolment, and because the work of guidance was carried on without appreciable additional cost by the reorganization and redirection of the work of the regular teaching staff.

Junior High School, North Wildwood, New Jersey

This school is located in a village of about 2000 people near Cape May. The enrolment of the school is about 335. The superintendent also looks after the work in three small contributory elementary schools. Few of the pupils are interested in college. The superintendent and teachers are acquainted with the homes and the people. This facilitates the integration of the pupils into the life of the community.

The school is housed in a modern building and has a library of 4000 volumes. The atmosphere of the school is happy and there are few disciplinary cases. Pupils participate in the school control. The curriculum includes the usual academic subjects, home economics, manual training, mechanical drawing, freehand drawing, vocal and instrumental music, physical education, shorthand, and typing. For pupils of Grade IX, not going to college, the school offers a social-scientific curriculum continuing thru the senior high school which is in another community. This curriculum includes four years each of practical English, science, social studies, and modern living. The social studies in Grade IX include occupational civics. The course in modern living includes learning in the development of personal powers and graces and cooperative living in the home community. The extracurriculum activities include athletics, publication of a magazine, assemblies, school exhibits, a chorus, an orchestra, and a school council.

At least 95 percent of the pupils are promoted annually. In case of retardation the evidence must show that the pupil will benefit. Last year a pupil was moved from Grade VI to the junior high school because he was a social problem. Pupils of low IQ are given more handwork, books they can read, special activities in play periods, and individual help in their work.

Thru individual guidance and tryout in curriculum offerings, pupils are helped to appraise their own interests and aptitudes. For each pupil there is kept a graph of results in standardized achievement tests and a record of IQ ratings. Each pupil is informed annually concerning his health thru an examination by a physician.

The organization for guidance is informal, involving the superintendent and teachers. There are two fifteen-minute periods a day for homeroom guidance. One well-trained teacher is a special consultant for pupils in need and acts as guidance leader. Pupils come to her freely with their problems. Whenever necessary all or part of the teachers meet for a case conference about a particular pupil or pupils. The superintendent and teachers work cooperatively and informally with the church, police, and other character-building agencies. The staff includes a nurse and a physician who examine pupils annually and follow up those in need of treatment. In difficult cases of maladjustment a psychiatrist from a nearby state institution is consulted. Both individual and group guidance are employed.

The cumulative record consists of a folder which contains occasional reports, a complete health record beginning in the elementary school, a record of the pupil's quarterly rating in all subjects, registration and attendance facts, personality trait comments, and a record of mental and achievement test ratings in elementary and junior high schools. The report to parents, which is of the comment type, appears as Figure V later in this chapter.

A visit to the school and conferences with the county superintendent, the superintendent, and the guidance leader indicated that this program is carried out earnestly and sympathetically, and that all pupils are given thoughtful guidance toward the assumption and attainment of worthy life objectives.

The School System of Newark Valley, New York

The Newark Valley Central School Community includes the village of Newark Valley, a rural settlement of about 1200 people; six small settlements of from 25 to 100 people; and a rural farming area of about seventy-five square miles. The total school-community population is about 3000, adults and children. Also, the high school takes pupils from twelve adjoining school districts with a total population of about 500 people. The school system includes all grades from the kindergarten thru Grade XII. The total registration is 800. There are thirty-seven teachers, of whom twelve teach elementary grades. Grades VII thru XII are organized as a six-year secondary school.

The curriculum includes in addition to the usual academic subjects, physical education, industrial arts, home economics, instru-

mental and vocal music, art, commercial subjects, and agriculture. Some subjects are given in alternate years, thus extending the scope of the curriculum. The extracurriculum offerings include assemblies, a bachelor club of seventy boys learning cooking and home activities, an agriculture club, a boys' glee club, a girls' glee club, a band, an orchestra, a girls' homemaking club, a school store, a newspaper, a yearbook, and a school council. The library contains 4500 volumes. The schedule is flexible, there being few subjects required of all. The atmosphere of the school is friendly to the interests of the individual child. Articulation is more easily accomplished because some elementary grades are in the same building and the secondary grades are organized into a six-year unit.

For the consideration of educational problems group counseling is offered as follows:

Grades VII and VIII. Educational opportunities and requirements. Tentative planning of schedules four years in advance. Why finish high school. What about college. How to study.

Grade IX. Educational opportunities and requirements. Who should go to college. Planning of schedules. How to study.

Grades X, XI, and XII. The guidance counselor works with English classes, meeting with each at least once a year.

Individual guidance is provided thru a personal interview several times each year. The bulletin board and catalog files are used freely. Pupils are aided in learning about their own strength, weaknesses, interests, abilities, and aptitudes by health examinations, achievement and mental tests, and aptitude tests. Health examinations are given annually by the school doctor and dental hygienist and are followed up by the nurse. Orthopedic and psychiatric examinations may be made if necessary. Mental tests are given at least four times in the pupil's twelve years of schooling. Group tests are used ordinarily and the Binet test in exceptional cases. Standardized achievement tests are given annually in September and January in Grades I thru VIII. Tests in departmentalized subjects in Grades IX thru XII are given whenever it seems wise and desirable. Aptitude tests, including the Seashore test for musical ability, and some tests to determine interest are administered. In considering preparation for college, pupils are asked to check their own personality traits and economic status against a list of seven necessary characteristics. In considering vocational interests the pupils are required to express

their liking for, uncertainty about, or dislike concerning 166 items listed by H. W. Hepner of the Department of Psychology of Syracuse University.

In vocational guidance formal group work is given as follows:

Grades VII and VIII. Vocational planning. Job studies.

Grade IX. In social studies classes pupils study job requirements, the technic of job study, and fields of occupational opportunity.

Grades X, XI, and XII. The guidance counselor takes over various subject classes thruout the year, especially classes in English, to discuss topics of vocational value.

Books and pamphlets concerning occupations are circulated informally among the pupils. The guidance office contains pamphlets and books giving information about 1500 jobs. Much of this material is given out during personal interviews of which there is at least one a year for every pupil in the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. Each pupil is requested to fill out a blank covering thirty occupations so as to indicate his initial interest in the light of his own estimate of his ability, interests, training, and fitness. The pupil then studies the occupations listed. Other procedures include vocational trips to surrounding industrial and commercial institutions, numerous motion pictures in classes and assemblies, and bulletin board displays.

Placement consists mostly of employment in part-time work during the school year. The organization of the faculty for guidance is based upon the following purposes:

- (1) To adjust growing citizens to a changing world.
- (2) To make the child's school experience the most interesting and meaningful at the time.
- (3) To overcome the effects of experiences outside the school which are obstacles to the attainment of objectives of education.

The personnel engaged directly in guidance includes the principal, the teachers, the attendance officer, and the guidance counselor. The functions of each are listed. Upon the guidance counselor falls the responsibility of providing for the acquisition of occupational information, for the analysis of the individual, for individual counseling, and for the cooperation of the faculty and community agencies. Among such agencies are listed the home, the public library, the farm, industries, and other organizations. The staff of specialists

includes a doctor, a nurse, a social welfare worker, and a dental hygienist. Once in two months an orthopedic physician, a psychologist, and a psychiatrist are available.

The cumulative records consist of a letter folder in which, beginning with the kindergarten, are gathered reports and other data of value in individual analysis. Some of the forms used are:

(1) A four-page cumulative record covering the entire thirteen years of school, giving registration statistics, scholastic record, attendance record, home conditions, home influence and adjustment problems, mental and emotional status, physical problems, physical and athletic status, extracurriculum and free-time activities and interests, notable accomplishments and experiences, vocational interests and plans, educational plans, and personality ratings.

(2) Interview record sheets on each of which can be recorded six different interviews.

(3) Observation record sheets on which problems and other observations are recorded.

(4) Reports on personality traits. Each blank provides space for four reports.

(5) Schedule sheet.

The School System of Newton, Massachusetts

School administrators in small communities may gain many suggestions concerning guidance from somewhat larger school systems such as the public schools of Newton, Massachusetts. This city of about 70,000 people is a suburb of Boston.

In Newton the philosophy of guidance is quite the same as that given in the preceding chapter. Guidance is considered the function of all teachers and principals. At the secondary level counselors lead the teachers at each grade level and certain teachers take charge of testing. The staff includes a director of research and guidance, a psychologist, a visiting teacher, two special teachers for remedial reading, a teacher of a sight-saving class, a teacher of lip reading, and teachers for the home instruction of crippled children. Practically the entire program of guidance suggested in the preceding paragraphs is carried out.

The annual report of the Newton Public Schools for 1936-37 shows clearly the dynamic effect of these guidance ideals and activities upon the procedures of the entire school system.

Records for Guidance

In order to guide the child successfully, the teacher must understand the child. Continuous understanding is possible only when the

teacher has access to information that reveals the child's native ability, accomplishments, interests, health condition, attitudes, and other phases of personality, and how he came to be as he is. The teacher should have access to the subjective estimates both of competent school people and of the parents concerning the pupil, and to estimates based upon objective tests and the more scientific methods of studying children. All this information should be used by the teacher as scientifically as possible in order that the educational procedures may be appropriate.¹³

In order that guidance may be effective it is well to remember that the child grows as an organic whole.¹⁴ In fact, the pupil's reaction to a given circumstance has little significance unless related to the drive or ideational content back of what he did. His personality may be seen as a river and at any point its current, its debris, its power are known only as one understands the sources from which these spring.¹⁵ If, therefore, the teacher wishes to help the pupil solve his own problems and help him grow into a wholesome personality, he must know much about his developmental history; he must know the causes for his present status and tendencies, and must determine the remedy with impartial as well as sympathetic judgment.

Cumulative Records

Cumulative records are of value only as they are used and used intelligently. They are designed to provide the teacher with many of the facts needed for guidance work, but they do not furnish complete information about the child. In addition, the teacher will need to study the child thru his own observations. Thus the teacher may come to understand why the pupil has certain personality traits; why he is careless in skill subjects while he produces a high record in reasoning ability and reading comprehension; or why his school work became poor in the grammar grades. From such records he may find contributory information as to whether the pupil has the mechanical skill and ingenuity, and the analytical and planning ability to enter the professional field of mechanical engineering; and whether he would probably succeed best in that field as a draftsman, a designer, a mathematician, a salesman, a director of men, or a

¹³ Briggs, Thomas H., chairman, *op. cit.*, p. 207.

¹⁴ Fisher, Mildred. "The Cumulative Record as a Factor in Guidance." *Journal of Educational Sociology* 5: 344-58; February 1932.

¹⁵ Plant, James S., *op. cit.*, p. 8.

business administrator. The teacher may use as contributory evidence the results of such tests as those of personality, achievement, and aptitude, but, over all, he must remember that the pupil's developmental history is more significant than his status at any one time.

Cumulative records are especially helpful to the teacher in one-room rural schools where there is a frequent change of teachers. Unless permanent records are kept, all that the outgoing teacher has learned about the pupil is lost. The incoming teacher should have the benefit of such knowledge in order to deal constructively and effectively with the pupil.¹⁶

Provision, therefore, should be made to gather in one place carefully selected information concerning the child from his preschool years to his graduation from school. Such information should be so organized that it will reveal as much as possible concerning the growth of the pupil as an organic whole. The teacher studying such a record will be able to understand better how the child grew.

Cumulative records should include the following information:

(1) Social and economic background, including the home and community environment.

(2) Health history and present status.

(3) The record of previous school experience, revealing aptitudes, interests, and abilities.

(4) Vocational and avocational interests and abilities as indicated by curriculum and extracurriculum experience, hobbies, and occupational work outside of school.

(5) Personality pattern as indicated by a record of personality traits from year to year and giving some evidence of the major objectives now being followed.

In the smaller schools, records and reports should be adapted to the particular conditions and should be considered permanent. The form should be simple and duplications of work should be avoided. The information should be easily summarized and easily accessible. Care should be taken that all information required by law is included. The record cards should be so organized that they may be easily revised. All information should be systematically and accurately entered. For this reason it is well to have one person responsible for the filing and care of the records. If possible, the cumulative records should include the information previously kept on the other cards and make them unnecessary.¹⁷

¹⁶ Strang, Ruth. *Every Teacher's Records*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. p. 42.

¹⁷ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. p. 150-55.

Thru the use of such records the following outcomes may be reasonably expected:

(1) A clear understanding that the great teacher is a teacher not merely of subjects but of children.

(2) A more systematic focusing of attention upon the needs and capacities of the individual child in order to help him help himself.

(3) A better adjustment of the school, the curriculum, and the schedule to the needs of every child.

(4) A common sense use of the scientific study of children and their needs from which study the deficiencies in our present knowledge of children may be revealed, and from which may come help in the solution of some of the problems of pupil adjustment.

(5) A better individual and social development of the child to the end that he may become a better and more efficient member of society.

Another outcome which would prove of great value to schools may be found in the interpretation of information collected in cumulative records. A careful study of the progress of pupils will reveal how they react to the school curriculum, organization, methods of instruction, and social life. Such information, together with tests administered for research purposes and thoughtful interviews, will reveal whether or not the present school curriculums, courses of study, organization, methods of instruction, and procedures are reasonably satisfactory. If found not justifiable, they should be changed. Guidance as a tool in supervision has not been appreciated by educators.¹⁸

Three kinds of cumulative records are now generally in use: Plan One—the single card record upon which is posted systematically various kinds of information concerning the child; Plan Two—the envelope or pocket into which are placed formal and informal reports concerning the pupil; and Plan Three—the folder upon one or more pages of which are blanks for the systematic recording of information concerning the pupil, and in which may be gathered other blanks for specific information and various kinds of reports and correspondence. Plan One is usually unsatisfactory because the information becomes abstracted and generalized. Unless carefully organized, Plan Two tends to gather information in an unsystematic way and sometimes results in the accumulation of so many reports that careful study is difficult. In general Plan Three is now favored because it makes possible a rapid survey of the pupil's growth and at the same time preserves more intimate and concrete evidence.

¹⁸ Fisher, Mildred, *op. cit.*

NAME (REVERSE)

Name of School _____

[illegible]

Key to markings in grades one to six:	+ Superior	A Average	- Inferior	P Promoted	R Retained
---------------------------------------	------------	-----------	------------	------------	------------

[illegible]

KEY: E—Excellent—4 Grade Pts., S—Superior—3 Grade Pts., M—Average—2 Grade Pts., I—Inferior—1 Grade Pt., F—Failure.

FIGURE II.—CUMULATIVE SCHOOL RECORD FORM, COUCH, MISSOURI

Pupil's Cumulative School Record

NAME OCCUPATION
 Location Pupil's Home NAME OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN
 Date Entered Date Birth Mo. Yr. Authority Sex
 Resident District No. Bus Routes (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12)
 Distance Rides (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12) Date Reentered Rank in Class
 Reason for Leaving Date Graduation
 Date Graduation

STANDARDIZED TESTS										ACTIVITY RECORD				ATTENDANCE RECORD				OUTSIDE READING IN ENGLISH							
NAME OF TEST		DATE		C. A.		E. Q.		PUPILS		YR.	ACTIVITY	P.L.S.	Semester	Days in cn	Days Present	Days Absent	Times Tardy	Year	Name of Book						
PHYSICAL RECORD Exam. No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Age Grade Height Weight Nutrition - - Eyes - - - - Nose																									
COMMUNICABLE DISEASE RECORD If treatment is needed mark 1 in proper space above When treatment is begun mark X. Condition corrected (X). Disease Vaccinated For Date Had Disease Remarks Diphtheria - - - - Measels - - - - Mumps - - - - Scarlet Fever - - - - Typhoid - - - - Small Pox - - - - Tubercular - - - - Meningitis - - - - Grippe - - - - Pneumonia - - - -										Eleventh				Twelfth											
										Year				Type				For							
										12th.				11th.				10th.							
										9th.				8th.				7th.							
										6th.				5th.				4th.							
										3rd.				2nd.				1st.							
										Year				Year				FUTURE RECORD							

Office record adapted, October, 1937
 Board of Education, Couch, Missouri

FIGURE II.—Continued

For the small school system, however, Plan Two may be the most practical because it can be operated without so much clerical work and involves little expense for printed blanks. Into such an envelope may be placed:

The pupil's cumulative scholastic record.

Indications of capacity to learn as shown by individual and group tests and the teacher's judgment.

Reports of interviews with the pupil and his parents.

Records of observations of pupils in natural situations.

The pupil's autobiography including his entries upon a blank giving much information about his social and economic background.

Records of physical and medical examinations.

Records of group accomplishments.

Periodic summaries of cumulative details.¹⁹

The cumulative blanks used in Plans One and Three usually call for the following information:

Intelligence test records.

Achievement test records.

The teacher's judgment of the pupil's scholastic aptitude.

Complete consecutive record of the pupil's scholastic marks.

Social and economic background.

Health history.

Personality traits including attitude toward self and society, work habits, and objectives.

Vocational experience and trends.

Avocational interests.

Record of outside reading.

Record of conferences.

Follow-up.

Many problems appear concerning the making of entries upon such blanks and the wise use of the accumulated information. For instance the use of such generalizations as "reliability," "resourcefulness," and "good judgment" has proved unsatisfactory because they seldom convey the same meaning to any two people. As a substitute there have appeared the recording of specific acts indicating personality traits or trends and the use of the graphic personality rating scale. In the use of cumulative blanks the most apparent danger is that the teacher may immediately catalog the pupil and fail to use the available information for constructive purposes. These

¹⁹ Strang, Ruth, *op. cit.*

Proctor Junior-Senior High School

CUMULATIVE RECORD

Record of Interviews and Educational-Vocational Plans

Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor
Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor
Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor	Date:	Counselor

FIGURE III.—CUMULATIVE RECORD FORM, PROCTOR, VERMONT

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

[95]

Name		Street Address			Tel. No.		Date of Entrance	
Last	First	Middle	Date of Birth	Yr.	Mo.	Day	Sex	Church
Name of Parent		Date of Birth and Place		Deceased Date		Arrived in U. S.		Citizen
Education Kind and Amount		Occupation Kind and Amount		Health		Nationality of Parents		
Father								
Mother								
Guardian—Step Parent								
Number of Brothers Older	Younger	Number of Sisters Older		Younger		Comments on Education and Occupation of These		
Family Economic Status		For Health		For Study		Language Spoken in Home For Personality		
Home Influences of Student:		1		2		3		4
Indicate any Home Contacts and Changes in Home Influences with Dates		1		2		3		4
Year		1		2		3		4
Part Time Work and Vocational Experiences		1		2		3		4
Home Duties		1		2		3		4
Support of Self or Parents		1		2		3		4
Attendance Record		1st Yr. 1st 2nd		2nd Yr. 1st 2nd		3rd Yr. 1st 2nd		4th Yr. 1st 2nd
Days Absent		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd
Days Present		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd
Times Tardy		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd		1st 2nd
Remarks:		Comments:		Hobbies		Time Spent per Week		Where Do You Engage in It?
								Who Encourages and Helps You?
								Date Ended

FIGURE III.—Continued

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS						
Trait	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Personal Appearance						
Courtesy						
Honesty						
Leadership						
Initiative						
Reliability						
Self Control						
Punctuality						
Mental and Emotional Stability						

FOLLOW-UP RECORD						
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Left School						
Preventive measures used						
Recommendations						
	1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	6th yr.

FIGURE III.—Continued

problems are carefully considered in various educational publications.²⁰

A study of the blanks (see Figures II and III) now in use in small school systems will give the reader an idea concerning the thoughts of those who are now experimenting with cumulative records. Plan One or the single card permanent record is illustrated by Figure II. This permanent record is used in the Consolidated School District of Couch, Missouri. The card is $10\frac{1}{4} \times 10\frac{3}{4}$ inches in size, printed on both sides. For Plan Two no illustration is necessary. Plan Three (see Figure III) is illustrated by the blank used in the junior-senior high school of Proctor, Vermont (population about 2500). The form is printed on a manila folder, $8\frac{3}{4} \times 11\frac{3}{4}$ inches for pages 1 and 2 and $9\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{3}{4}$ inches for pages 3 and 4. It provides space for the recording of facts concerning the pupil's home and social environment, out-of-school experiences, hobbies, and interviews concerning educational and vocational plans, and provides also a graphic scale like that of Hartson for the recording of personality traits. Altho the elementary-school records are not a part of this folder, they are found on blanks brought forward from the elementary school and placed in the folder. Another illustration of Plan Three not presented here is found in the public schools of Dillonvale, Ohio (population about 2000).

Reports to Parents

The cooperation of the parents is indispensable in the guidance of the child. In order that the home and school may work together most effectively, it is desirable that each bring to the other helpful information concerning the child. To the parent the school should bring facts and records related to the pupil's progress in attaining the objectives of education—physical, ethical, and social, as well as mental.

During the last ten years much objection has been raised to the old type report card which recorded only the pupil's attendance, scholastic record, and perhaps an estimate of his deportment and effort. The main objections to the old card are:

²⁰ Jones, Arthur J. *Principles of Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934. 456 p. ¶ Fisher, Mildred, *op. cit.* ¶ Strang, Ruth, *op. cit.* ¶ Eurich, A. C., and Wrenn, C. G. "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs." *Guidance in Educational Institutions*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part 1. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 2, p. 31-37.

PERSONALITY PROGRESS

The child's attitudes and behavior are of great importance. Education is not just a matter of book learning. It is far more one of learning to get on well with people, of doing one's best, of facing facts, and of doing the right thing in each situation. This part of the report, with your co-operation, is intended to help strengthen the good traits shown by the child and to enable defects of personality to be overcome. Only those traits which characterize the child quite noticeably one way or the other are marked. If the child is strong, the trait is marked +. If the child needs to improve a trait, it is marked -. If a child has improved, it is marked "I".

T R A I T S	Six-Weeks Marking Periods					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
I. As an Individual (Personal)						
1. Gives best efforts to work						
2. Accurate in doing work						
3. Obeys promptly and cheerfully						
4. On time at school and with work						
5. Has self-confidence						
6. Finishes what is started						
7. Concentrates on task in hand						
8. Takes correction nicely						
9. Is a neat housekeeper						
10. Height						
11. Weight						
12. Should weigh						
II. As a Member of the Group (Social)						
1. Cooperates in work and play						
2. Is courteous and kindly						
3. Controls temper; avoids quarreling						
4. Keeps rules of school and playground						
5. Is friendly, a "good mixer"						
6. Is dependable, reliable						
7. Has initiative						
8. Is popular with fellow pupils						

SCHOLARSHIP PROGRESS

Subjects which the child takes are marked Satisfactory (S) if the child is doing passing work; and Unsatisfactory (U) if the work is not of passing quality. If the child seems to be working up to what may reasonably be expected, a plus sign (+) is added to the S or the U. If it seems that he might reasonably do better, a minus sign (-) is added to the S or U. Improvement is shown by "I".

S U B J E C T S						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Arithmetic						
2. Art						
3. Health						
4. Reading						
5. Writing						
6. Handwork						
7. Music						
8. Social Science (Geog.- Hist.)						
9.						

CERTIFICATE OF PROMOTION

This certifies that the pupil whose name appears hereon has completed the work of the _____ Grade and is recommended for promotion to the _____ Grade.

Teacher Date: _____ Supt. _____

FIGURE IV.—PUPIL PROGRESS REPORT,
COULEE CITY, WASHINGTON

(1) It does not permit a report concerning attitudes, character, mental and physical health, social efficiency, or concerning the pupil's growth as an organized whole. It therefore overemphasizes scholastic achievement.

(2) It permits no consideration of the differences that exist among children.

(3) It does not challenge pupils in accordance with their native ability. Therefore many pupils fail to do their best. The non-academic pupil never receives praise.

(4) It causes unhappy discussions among children and parents.

(5) It places the emphasis upon competition rather than self-improvement.

From many experiments there have appeared in the elementary schools two main types of report cards. In the first, the usual scholastic records are maintained and additional information is given concerning the pupil's personality traits and work habits. In the second, no marks whatever are given, but the teacher writes his opinion concerning the growth of the pupil, his strengths and weaknesses. Various combinations of these two types are numerous.

In general, experience shows that the parents appreciate information in regard to the development of their children in health, character, attitudes, and social efficiency, provided the report is so constituted that it does not destroy pupil initiative and freedom. Parents feel they are entitled to some definite information each year concerning the relative ability and level of achievement of their child. Altho it is fundamentally most desirable to know whether the child is doing satisfactory work in the light of his native ability, it is also necessary to know eventually what the pupil's achievement and ability will make possible for him in higher schools and in vocations.

An illustration of the first type including ratings in the various subjects and in individual and social personality traits is found in the card used at Coulee City, Washington. An ingenious method of rating is used to indicate strength, weakness, improvement, whether the child is working up to what may be reasonably expected, and whether he is passing. Figure IV shows the record side of the form which is mimeographed on a sheet 7 x 12 inches. The reverse side is used to convey a message to the parents.

An illustration of the second type, providing for comments only, is found in Figure V, a card used successfully at North Wildwood, New Jersey. This form consists of an eight-page booklet (page size 6 x 9 inches). The front and back cover pages are not shown in Figure V.

STUDIES		ANALYSIS OF WORK	
ENGLISH		ENGLISH	
<p>ENGLISH John is displaying a splendid attitude toward his work, for he has a keen desire to improve. He has shown a clear understanding of the principles of grammar. His oral expression is improving, for he willingly volunteers in class discussions. However, much more time and thought should be devoted to the preparation of his written work.</p>		MATHEMATICS	
<p>MATHEMATICS John is very attentive in class and tries to understand all the principles of the work as they come up for discussion. He does all his drill assignments promptly. For the sake of speed he is sometimes careless in checking. Errors result in signs or omission of exponents.</p>		NATURAL SCIENCE	
<p>NATURAL SCIENCE John apparently has a good background for this work. He is prompt and thorough with his reference work and in the solving of class problems, he is very helpful. His notes are organized well but are lacking somewhat in neatness. An effort should be made to improve in this last respect.</p>		SOCIAL SCIENCE	
<p>SOCIAL SCIENCE During class periods John is very active. He reads quickly and thoroughly and finds information in reference books easily. This information is usually well organized and carefully presented to the class either in the form of an oral report or during class discussion. His notebook is arranged neatly and contains a great number of extra clippings and pictures. Because his daily work is well done, he passes tests with little difficulty.</p>		LATIN: John has an excellent Latin vocabulary at his command. His use of this is not always correct; hence a more intensive drill of the grammatical principles involved would be helpful. His participation in class discussions shows an appreciation of Roman history and an alertness for Latin words and phrases as they occur in English.	

(2)

FIGURE V.—HIGH-SCHOOL REPORT CARD, NORTH WILDWOOD, N. J.

(3)

SPECIAL SUBJECTS

CHARACTER TRAITS

(1) Home Economics (2) Manual Training (3) Mechanical Drawing (4) Freehand Drawing (5) Vocal Music (6) Instrumental Music (7) Physical Education (8) Shorthand (9) Typing	He has shown the ability to form his own opinions and cause them to influence others.	Leadership
(12) John's work is always neat and clean. He is very accurate and does everything in a workman-like manner. His attitude is fine and he is willing to help others.	He works well with people and is always anxious to participate in school activities.	Cooperation
(17) John is an outstanding pupil in physical education. He has developed the proper skills in all activities. His work on the apparatus and mat is of the highest type. His games and extra curricular activities are superior. His attitude among pupils shows he is a leader of his group.	His good manners are evident in all situations.	Courtesy
	He can be depended upon to assume special duties and carry them to completion.	Responsibility
	The required work is submitted on time, and he is regular in his class attendance.	Promptness
	His daily assignments would show more careful preparation if he would learn to check them.	Thoroughness
	He is neat in his personal appearance but must show improvement in his written work.	Neatness
	He is a graceful winner and loser.	Sportmanship
	He is a wonderful example of youth and health.	Health
		Days absent
		Times tardy

(4)

(5)

FIGURE V.—Continued

RECORD OF CREDITS

[illegible]

FINAL ESTIMATE

We believe that _____
should be in grade _____
next year. _____
Dated this _____ day of _____, 19 _____

Supervising Principal.

TO PARENTS

In this folder you will find an analysis of the work of your child and comments about the character traits he manifests at school.

Please read the report thoughtfully and communicate with the school if you have any questions about it.

You are invited to visit the school often to have a better understanding of your children's problems.

Regular attendance is important to secure good results from school work, but children should not attend school unless they are well.

[illegible]

Please tell us anything about your child's habits and attitudes which will help us understand him better.

Whether you have commented on your child or not, please sign to show you have read the report.

FIGURE V.—Continued

From Crestline, Ohio, the superintendent reports the abolition of all marks on report cards and the substitution of an informal letter four times a year, touching not only on academic accomplishment but also on social attitudes, interests, and other phases of growth. To prepare for these letters, teachers keep notes on 3 x 5 inch cards. The final report of the year is cumulative, is issued in duplicate, and contains a record of any intelligence or accomplishment tests given during the year. On each report is provided a space for a report from the parent to the teacher concerning such topics as the child's interests, his physical condition, and his general attitude toward schoolwork. No difficulty seems to have been experienced with the parents. One of the dangers to be avoided is the tendency for the reports to become stereotyped. The teachers say that this type of report is an effective stimulus in shifting attention from subjectmatter to the growth of the child.

In the secondary schools where the parents expect more specific information and the recording of personality traits becomes a more sensitive procedure, there are few evidences of much change in report cards of small school systems.

Conclusion

Thru various experiments the small school system is developing guidance suited to its needs. Those who wish to initiate such work or to expand their present programs may well proceed gradually and with due regard to the needs and economic status of their communities. There is no royal road for guidance, no guidance program suited in all respects to all other school systems. The most successful programs are those which are built up gradually as the faculty, school, and people learn the nature of guidance and accept their responsibilities in the program. Those earnest teachers and administrators who consciously plan to consider the growth of each child and to help each child prepare for the actual conditions of life, will gradually produce a school with better educational practices. They will try to produce a more realistic curriculum and will adjust their offerings and methods to the needs of the individual child to the end that each child may learn how to make the most of his abilities and may become a sturdy, righteous citizen inspired by the ideal of unselfish service.

CHAPTER V

Problems in the Enrichment of the Curriculum

THE CURRICULUM offered to children, both in rural and in urban areas, should be adequate to meet their needs, interests, aptitudes, and capacities. It should prepare them for living under the social and economic conditions of life in democratic America.¹ Upon this point most people would agree. However, in taking steps toward accomplishing the desired ends, at least two lines of cleavage develop. There are those who, rejecting the present curriculum, would completely rethink the program to be made available in small communities. On the other hand, there are many who believe that thru the evolutionary processes of enrichment and reorganization great progress can be made. The purpose of the present chapter is to suggest some of the problems in a program of enrichment. Chapters VI and VII contain suggestions on where and how to begin. For related factors, such as finance, personnel, equipment, and building facilities, attention is called to the appropriate chapters elsewhere in the yearbook.

What Should Be the Characteristics of the Modern Curriculum in the Small School?

The term "curriculum" has been defined as "a sum-total of the conscious events which compose a child's life and from which he learns." It includes, both in and out of school, experiences of all types. It is "a series of experiences which continuously modify the child's personality";² or, as expressed by another group, the curriculum consists of "a series of purposeful life experiences growing out of the interests of pupils and directed, under teacher-guidance, toward increasingly intelligent behavior in relation to the surrounding culture."³

¹ For a discussion of the general characteristics of a dynamic curriculum, see Chapter 3 of *Youth Education Today*, Sixteenth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, 1938, p. 56. Additional suggestions will be found in the other publications cited in Chapters VI and VII of the present yearbook.

² Missouri State Department of Education. *Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum*. Courses of Study for Elementary Grades. Jefferson City: the Department, 1937. p. xiv.

³ Hopkins, L. Thomas, and others. *Integration, Its Meaning and Application*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. p. 201.

TABLE 4.—THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

General areas:	Self-realization	Human relationship	Economic efficiency	Civic responsibility
1	2	3	4	5
Specific objectives:	<p>The inquiring mind</p> <p>Speech</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Writing</p> <p>Number</p> <p>Sight and hearing</p> <p>Health knowledge</p> <p>Health habits</p> <p>Public health</p> <p>Recreation</p> <p>Intellectual interests</p> <p>Esthetic interests</p> <p>Character</p>	<p>Respect for humanity</p> <p>Friendships</p> <p>Cooperation</p> <p>Courtesy</p> <p>Appreciation of the home</p> <p>Conservation of the home</p> <p>Homemaking</p> <p>Democracy in the home</p>	<p>Work</p> <p>Occupational information</p> <p>Occupational choice</p> <p>Occupational efficiency</p> <p>Occupational adjustment</p> <p>Occupational appreciation</p> <p>Personal economics</p> <p>Consumer judgment</p> <p>Efficiency in buying</p> <p>Consumer protection</p>	<p>Social justice</p> <p>Social activity</p> <p>Social understanding</p> <p>Critical judgment</p> <p>Tolerance</p> <p>Conservation</p> <p>Social applications of science</p> <p>World citizenship</p> <p>Law observance</p> <p>Economic literacy</p> <p>Political citizenship</p> <p>Devotion to democracy</p>

Source: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. 157 p.

The Aims of Education

Any plan for enrichment must have ultimate goals. What is the destination which makes enrichment necessary? These points of reference have been called at various times by such terms as aims, purposes, outcomes, and objectives. One of the most recent statements of these general objectives has been issued by the Educational Policies Commission.⁴ In outline form this statement is given in Table 4.

While all school systems will find stimulation in the pronouncement of the Educational Policies Commission, most small school systems are at the present time operating under earlier statements. Frequently these lists of objectives are set forth in state courses of study. For example, the curriculum of the Minnesota elementary schools has the following aims which include a number of those set forth in the report of the Educational Policies Commission:

The destiny of a nation is determined by the character of the education of its citizens. The success of a democracy depends not only upon the general intelligence, the knowledge, and the skills possessed by its citizens, but also upon their attitudes and the ideals for which they stand. The aims and purposes of education must embody the high ideals which animated the founders of the Republic. These ideals must be analyzed and interpreted in the light of the modern social, economic, political, and spiritual world.

The framers of the Declaration of Independence held that all men "are endowed with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." The framers were no doubt thinking of adult life and political rights, but the thesis has a general application. Only thru education can these rights be secured to individuals and safeguarded to the nation.

Education should lead to an interest in life, all phases of life. Education which is not related to life, to its practicalities and to its beauties, is futile. It should not only help the individual to make a living but help him to enjoy life and "to hold high at all times and ages the quality of human living."

The liberation of the race from ignorance and superstition is a slow process. The progress of civilization has been retarded by undesirable tendencies which have a sinister effect upon the health, upon the mind, and upon the souls of men. Liberty is an active principle in the development of a people. Liberty does not mean license but is based upon self-control and accompanied by a sense of responsibility for the welfare of society. Liberty can be properly understood and appreciated only thru a system of education, permeated by a philosophy of education that is sound and essentially democratic.

⁴ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. 157 p.

Happiness is essential. To be happy and to make others happy are among the worthy aims in the process of education. The satisfactions sought should be durable and worthwhile. There is no permanent happiness in selfishness. True happiness comes thru self-control and service to others. The welfare of the individual is bound up in the weal of all.

The right to life, liberty, and happiness means opportunity, nothing more. There is no guaranteed possession. Richness of life, enlightened liberty, lasting happiness, come to the individual or nation thru effort and sacrifice. Each succeeding generation must re-enact the struggle for life; rededicate itself to the principle of liberty and find happiness in the consciousness of worthy living. A right confers on no man permission to shirk. The inalienable rights are for those who accept responsibility.⁵

The tentative aims of education as given in the Virginia course of study are generally recognized as outstanding. The committee which recently prepared the elementary social science course of study for Oregon makes the following statement relative to the aims given below: "The committee in its studies was unable to find what in its opinion was a better list of understandings, attitudes, appreciations and automatic responses to be developed, than the list taken from the Virginia course of study." The following from the Oregon bulletin is a restatement of the aims published in the Virginia tentative course of study:

1. Understandings

The understanding of the interdependence of all forms of life; of the necessity of man's adaptation to changing conditions; of man's increasing control of nature; of the influence of nature upon the development of plants, animals, and civilization; of the orderliness and balance of the universe; of how modern science has transformed ways of thinking and living; of man's increasing control of his social environment; of the relation of the social heritage to man's development; of man's constant endeavor to improve his living conditions; of the relation of the movements of population to man's development; of democracy as a method of living and thinking; that the masses of men struggle constantly to gain freedom from domination by the few; that modern peoples are endeavoring to reorganize human relations; that government in a democracy rests upon the consent and civic responsibility of the governed; that government in a democracy is often controlled by forces invisible to the citizen; of the relation of a broad social consciousness to man's development; of the operation of economic factors; of how to choose a vocation; of the operation of modern business and industrial enterprise; of the relation to man's development of humanizing economic and industrial life; of recreation as a creative agency; of the functions of family life; of the relations of health to human development; of the social function of religion.

⁵ Minnesota State Department of Education. *Curriculum for Elementary Schools*. St. Paul: the Department, 1928. p. 12-13.

2. Attitudes

The attitudes of inquiry, creative self-expression, contemplative self-cultivation, self-integrity, respect for personality, critical-mindedness, directness, open-mindedness, mental integrity, responsibility, generalizing, concentration; the scientific attitude; the attitude of tolerance, of working harmoniously with others, of relying upon orderly methods of gaining social ends, of respect for constituted authority, of constructive participation in social life.

3. Appreciations

The appreciation of the beautiful, of human nature, of shared activity, of high standards of conduct, of humor, of the achievements of thinking, of good workmanship, of nature.

4. Automatic Responses

The ability to read, speak, write, listen, study, use quantitative symbols and processes, use the common objective materials and instruments of social heritage, maintain certain objective materials of the social heritage, function as a wise consumer, maintain efficient economic status, maintain health, conform to social standards.*

In order to bring about a unification of the educational program that the child is to experience, a definite plan is generally followed. This plan is usually in the form of course of study bulletins which include lists of principles of procedure and outlines of content areas and activities. Courses of study vary from state to state and rightly so. They should also vary from community to community. The modifications made should be made both in terms of individual and social needs.

What Difficulties Impede Progress toward the Desired Outcomes?

As previously mentioned, the problems of the small school system may also be problems in larger places, but the fact that they exist in all communities regardless of size is no valid reason for omitting them here. When the facilities are provided, the staff trained, and the need for solving the problems recognized, it may be that many of the unique features of the small school so frequently spoken of in professional publications, if existent, can be used in solving these problems.

* Oregon State Department of Education. *Course of Study, Elementary Schools—Social Studies*. Salem: the Department, 1937. p. 8-10. ¶ For the greater details of the original statement, see *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII*. Bulletin, Vol. 17, No. 1. Richmond, Va.: State Board of Education, 1934. p. 2-14.

In general, one must recognize the fact that what seems to be a solution for a given problem in one community may not solve that same problem in another community because of the differences between the two places. No one, therefore, can mention all of the problems of the small school or attempt to write the answers. It should be valuable, however, to list as many of the problems as can be recognized and to make suggestions that will help those who are trying to solve the problems of a particular district. Each individual whose responsibility it is to solve the problems could then take those suggestions applicable to his community and capitalize on them.

Problems Reported by Superintendents

In the preparation of the present volume the Commission sent inquiry forms to several thousand superintendents in small school systems. After the replies were received, follow-up letters were written to certain administrators giving them an opportunity to describe the steps that had been taken to solve some of the problems in their schools. These descriptions have been helpful in the preparation of the last part of the present chapter as well as the entire next chapter. The rank order of the problems most frequently mentioned for the cities of less than 2500 population was as follows:

School Curriculum

- (1) Offering suitable courses for non-college students.
- (2) Providing an adequate program of supervision.
- (3) Providing individual instruction.
- (4) Providing a suitable curriculum—local, state, national, and international.
- (5) Coordinating individual needs and college standards.
- (6) Eliminating obsolete content.
- (7) Providing instructional material.
- (8) Locating teaching methods.
- (9) Finding and utilizing standard tests.
- (10) Finding units of work.
- (11) Meeting requirements of regional accrediting association.
- (12) Developing new-type tests.

School Organization

- (1) Providing kindergarten instruction.
- (2) Providing preschool instruction.
- (3) Providing classes for adults.
- (4) Using departmentalization plans.
- (5) Providing courses for post-graduates in high school.

- (6) Deciding between the various types of organization, such as 6-3-3, 6-6, 8-4, and others.
- (7) Providing part-time instruction for employed students.

A comparison of these problems of local administrators with the ones listed in the next section indicates quite clearly that progress for the improvement of the small school is in order. A comparison of the ratings by administrators in cities under 2500 population with those in cities of 2500 or above shows that many of the same problems were designated by administrators of the larger systems.

Problems Revealed by Professional Literature

A canvass of the educational literature on small school systems reveals a number of problems and shortcomings. Many of these inadequacies are to be found in school systems in large cities. An effort has been made in listing the following problems under appropriate general headings to include only those difficulties which are more likely to occur in the small school system. For the purpose of clarity, these problems are arranged according to their type.

1. Administration⁷

(a) How to offer an enriched curriculum which will satisfactorily care for the individual needs and for the diversified special and vocational interests of pupils—a curriculum that will care for the gifted and the slow pupils and provide a variation in electives related to community needs and interests, in spite of a small faculty and restricted class enrolments.

(b) How to formulate an understandable, usable, generally acceptable set of educational objectives with special attention given to attitudes and other adaptable “controls of conduct”; how to organize subjectmatter best adapted to the realization of these objectives.

⁷ Based upon: Hildreth, Gertrude. *Learning the Three R's, A Modern Interpretation*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1936. Chapter 1. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 107-12. ¶ Douglass, Earl R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937. p. 125-34. ¶ Lewis, Charles D. *The Rural Community and Its Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1937. p. 21. ¶ Ruff, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-7. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. “Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School.” *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 214-20, 233; April 1937. ¶ Jessen, Carl A. “Trends in Secondary Education.” *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*. Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. 1, Chapter 2, p. 25-26. (Advance pages.) ¶ Ferriss, Emory N. *The Rural High School*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 61. ¶ American Association of School Administrators. *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1938. p. 57-63. ¶ Ferriss, Emory N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. Roy. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. Chapter 5. ¶ Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study. *The Changing Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Chapter 1.

(c) How to develop a curriculum that will give each pupil a rich, well-rounded educational experience and also meet the requirements of college for those who wish to attend.

(d) How to develop and use plans of enriching the curriculum so that art, music, and dramatics may be provided, and at the same time offer a program of studies of desirable breadth and variety.

(e) How to provide suitable courses for non-college pupils.

(f) How to provide for a rotation of subjects that will make it possible for the "transfer" pupil to continue his work, and for the pupil who fails a subject offered only in alternate years to have an opportunity to take that subject again before he graduates.

(g) How to organize, encourage, direct, limit, and control excursions and extracurriculum activities.⁸

(h) How to plan an activity program which will provide some time each week for homeroom, club, and auditorium periods in addition to the regularly scheduled subjects in the recognized fields of learning.

(i) How to organize and provide a desirable noon-hour program that will include all pupils in the elementary and secondary schools.⁹

(j) How to provide a physical and health education program that will include a health examination for every pupil, proper instruction in family relations, and participation in recreational activities.

(k) How to plan a program for a small school that does not pattern too much after the large school without necessary adaptations.

2. Organization¹⁰

(a) How to determine the type of organization for a given school, 8-4 or 6-6.

(b) How to provide nursery and kindergarten instruction.

(c) How to plan an elementary- and secondary-school program with a small number of teachers and pupils.

(d) How to fit the program to the pupil.

⁸ Based upon: Ferriss, Emery N. *The Rural High School*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 61. ¶ Minnesota State Department of Education. *Curriculum for Secondary Schools*. Bulletin No. 1. St. Paul: the Department, 1931. p. 40-44. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 110. ¶ Ruff, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-7. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 219; April 1937. ¶ Jessen, Carl A. "Trends in Secondary Education." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*. Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. 1, Chapter 2, p. 25. ¶ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. p. 201, 309. ¶ Douglass, Harl R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937. p. 109-12. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Materials of Instruction*. Eighth Yearbook. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. p. 88.

⁹ Based upon: Anderson, Vernon E. "Educational Possibilities of the Noon Hour." *Minnesota Journal of Education* 16: 207-208; March 1936. ¶ Gibb, Louis S. "The Noon Hour in Smaller Schools." *Journal of the National Education Association* 26: 300-301; December 1937.

¹⁰ Based upon: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 107-12. ¶ Data taken from tabulations of blanks sent out by the Commission on the Small School System, American Association of School Administrators, 1937. ¶ Douglass, Harl R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937. p. 105-107.



*Only an idle little stream
Whose amber waters softly gleam,
Where I may wade, through woodland shade,
And cast the fly, and loaf, and dream:
Only a trout or two, to dart
From foaming pools, and try my art.—Henry Van Dyke.*

*Photograph by
H. Armstrong Roberts*

3. Instruction¹¹

- (a) How to individualize instruction and keep up the interest in small classes.
- (b) How to adapt method and content to irregular, incapacitated, isolated, and part-time pupils as well as to normal full-time pupils.
- (c) How to provide courses for post-graduates.
- (d) How to find teaching methods.
- (e) How to provide for supervised study.
- (f) How to provide instructional material.
- (g) How to select and utilize standard tests.

4. Supervision¹²

- (a) How to provide an adequate program of supervision of instruction for the whole school—one that will provide in-service training facilities, as well as time and freedom to plan, observe, and evaluate.
- (b) How to unify instruction thruout the entire school program.
- (c) Where to get teachers trained for the small school who are interested in working on the problems shown to be desirable by curriculum research.
- (d) How to reduce teacher load, subject preparations, and study-hall and extracurriculum assignments.
- (e) How to balance the low and widely fluctuating pupil-teacher ratio.
- (f) How to apply the requirements of regional accrediting associations to a small school and still let it maintain its freedom to administer a program based on local needs.

5. Guidance¹³

- (a) How to provide a functioning educational and vocational guidance program with proper child accounting and adjustment service.

¹¹ Based upon: Rufi, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-7. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 219; April 1937. ¶ Douglass, Harl R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937. p. 125-34. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 107-12. ¶ Roemer, Joseph. "The Weaknesses of the Small High School." *Peabody Journal of Education* 6: 37-43; July 1928. ¶ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 13. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 58-69.

¹² Based upon: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 107-12. ¶ Rufi, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-7. ¶ Ferriss, Emery N. *The Rural High School*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 61. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 218, 219; April 1937. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, *Economic Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. p. 13. ¶ Williams, R. C. *Educational Programs of Smaller Graded and High Schools*. Research Bulletin No. 14. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1933. Part 2, p. 24-40.

¹³ Based upon: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 107-11. ¶ Data taken from tabulation of blanks sent out by Commission on the Small School System, American Association of School Administrators, 1937. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 219; April 1937. ¶ Rufi, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926, p. 5-7. ¶ Ferriss, Emery N. *The Rural High School*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 61. ¶ Ferriss, Emery N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. Roy. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. p. 208.

- (b) How to meet the problems of the repeater and drop-out pupil.
- (c) How to encourage a larger proportion of rural children to go on to high school.¹⁴

6. Equipment¹⁵

- (a) How to provide suitable library facilities for elementary and secondary schools and for community library service when public library facilities are not available.
- (b) How to secure adequate instructional equipment, supplies, and facilities for the entire school.
- (c) How to provide adequate laboratory and shop equipment planned for school and community use.

7. Community Relations¹⁶

- (a) How to organize and plan a curriculum that will meet most effectively the community interests, needs, and cooperation.
- (b) How can a community interest in modern education be developed?

Not all the problems mentioned in the preceding list are of equal importance in all schools; some may not exist at all in some schools. By and large, however, these are the problems that prevent a modern curriculum in a small school system from reaching the desired outcomes.

The Commission on Youth Problems of the American Association of School Administrators apparently recognized this point of view when under "Criticisms of the Present Curriculum" it wrote, "It seems, therefore, worthwhile to take stock of the several widespread criticisms of the public school curriculum which seem to have, in part at least, a basis of genuine merit." Those criticisms are that the curriculum: (a) is remote from the student's daily life outside of the school; (b) is not adjusted to modern life; (c) does not

¹⁴ These specific problems have been met by the general suggestions in the preceding chapters on guidance, Chapters III and IV.

¹⁵ Based upon: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 109. ¶ Ruff, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-7. ¶ Data taken from tabulation of blanks sent out by Commission on the Small School System, American Association of School Administrators, 1937. ¶ Lewis, Charles D. *The Rural Community and Its Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1937. p. 308-14. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 219; April 1937.

¹⁶ Based upon: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Development of the High-School Curriculum*. Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1928. p. 111. ¶ Henzlik, F. E. "Modern Approaches to the Problems of the Small School." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 219; April 1937. ¶ Ferriss, Emory N. *The Rural High School*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 61. ¶ Data taken from tabulation of blanks sent out by Commission on the Small School System, American Association of School Administrators, 1937. ¶ Douglass, Harl R. *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1937. p. 125-34. ¶ Hulbert, G. H. *The Community School*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. p. 1-21 and Chapter 3.

reflect the aspirations of youth; (d) is not adapted to the individual differences among students; (e) has not kept pace with the latest developments in psychology; and (f) gives too little attention to the emotional and social attitudes.¹⁷

No doubt many small school systems *have recognized* the need for curriculum changes and improvements but have not been in a position to attempt such improvements or have not had the staff and facilities required to make the desired change. The trends of subject offerings in the secondary-school field point toward increased offerings in the fields of practical and fine arts. In a master's thesis based on a study of forty-six Kansas high schools, Jacobs makes this statement, "In general, the trend in high-school offerings is toward increasing practical arts, fine arts, vocational subjects, and commercial subjects at the expense of foreign languages and teacher training."¹⁸ Johnson, in a master's thesis, points out that "the greatest net gains by the addition of subjects were, in order named, fine arts, commerce, practical arts, English, social science, and physical education. The greatest net losses in total subjects offered were sustained in order named, foreign languages, teacher training, science, and mathematics."¹⁹ Johnson also believes, "In general these trends are in harmony with those found to have occurred in neighboring states and in schools of the North Central Association during recent years."²⁰

Observation in the schools of Minnesota shows a trend comparable to those mentioned above. The offerings in commercial subjects, music, and practical arts are on the increase. The offerings in the fields of foreign languages, ancient history, and higher mathematics are on the decrease. No change has been observed in the field of physical education because courses in this field have been required by law for a number of years.

If one reviews the literature that has been prepared for the past few years relative to the curriculum, one is impressed by the activity in that field of publication. Usually the foreword or introductory

¹⁷ American Association of School Administrators. *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1938. p. 57-63.

¹⁸ Jacobs, J. E. *A Study of the Offerings of Forty-six Kansas High Schools*. Master's thesis. Lawrence, Kans.: University of Kansas, 1935. 71 p.

¹⁹ Johnson, J. Rudolph. *Curricular Trends in One Hundred High Schools of Central and Western Kansas, 1927-36*. Master's thesis. Lawrence, Kans.: University of Kansas, 1937.

²⁰ *Ibid.*

statement points out how little has been done for our boys and girls, and mentions the goal that lies ahead. This study of the curriculum is a healthy situation, for the curriculum should be undergoing constant revision. Any revision, however, should be thought of in terms of the entire school. Because of the tremendous increase in secondary enrolment in recent years, our attention has been focused on that level, and therefore a word of warning may be in order. If we are to build a program that will develop the whole child, then we must begin that program with the first contact the school has with the child and continue it into adult life. In about half of the cases, that life will be in the "home" community or in one comparable to it in many ways.

CHAPTER VI

Special Areas for Curriculum Enrichment

IT IS A WELL-KNOWN FACT that the curriculums of many school systems are regrettably meager. After a study of a number of small high schools in 1926, Rufi summarized the situation in the following way:

Critics claim that the curriculums of these schools are extremely limited, traditional, poorly arranged and ill-balanced, that so much stress is placed upon preparation for college other vital objectives are neglected, that they offer little vocational work, make little or no provision for individual differences in either ability or interests, and by too much imitation of the large urban high schools have almost utterly failed to meet the needs of their own communities.¹

Fundamental to the solution of curriculum problems will be the development of cooperative relationships among organized groups in a small community. The American Legion, the parent-teacher associations, the Grange, and similar organizations will need to be enlisted as cooperating groups instead of being regarded as pressure groups. That consideration is being given all these problems is a favorable sign for the modern small school because here there are fewer pupils with whom to get acquainted and individual counseling is made much more probable. Community surveys have shown that members of small community groups who know each other as individuals in a community as well as in the group, lend themselves readily to the building up of local pride for a given institution. "The small school like the village may possess advantages in offering opportunities for social contacts superior to either the relative isolation of the open country or the crowded conditions of the city."²

What special areas of education need development and enrichment at this time? Altho the needs vary from community to community there are at least five fields which merit the consideration of educators in small school systems: (1) utilization of community resources, (2) recreation, (3) education of the exceptional child, (4) vocational education, and (5) adult education.

¹ Rufi, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 263. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. p. 5-7.

² Lewis, Charles D. *The Rural Community and Its Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1937. p. 203.

Utilization of Community Resources³

Every school has a community—a social and economic setting of human activities. This social environment is a valuable source for the enrichment of the curriculum of the small school system. The general outlines and purpose of the curriculum may be broadened as suggested in the previous chapter; the technics and the procedures may be improved as suggested in the next chapter—but after all, enriched learning is basically an individual matter. As Kilpatrick has so well stated, “an actual situation responsibly faced is the ideal unit of educative experience; and second, that of all possible situations no other is quite so educative as one in which the responsible leaders of the community join with the young in carrying forward an enterprise in which all really share.”⁴ It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the important principles and technics for utilizing community resources.

Principles Governing the Selection of Suitable Resources for Study

The attempts to solve community problems must take into account the possibility of differences of opinion among the citizens with reference to proposed social practices. Langfitt says, “Only the inexperienced, the impractical, the social theorist, or the unsuccessful, thwarted, or inhibited radical craving some means of egoistic expression, will attempt to administer a high school in such a way as to ignore or brazenly attack the social beliefs of large influential groups of citizens.”⁵ Social demands may be anticipated and met without wrecking community cooperative efforts. Assistance in planning phases of curriculum activities will help the faculty to avoid social antagonism. Participation in curriculum planning by adults will assist in discovering community resources and will test the practicability of the experiences proposed. Participation in community planning on the part of all would help to integrate the numerous agencies which exist for educational purposes.

Among the guides to school-community relationships the following nine are of some importance.

³ This section was prepared with the assistance of Clifford P. Archer, head, Department of Education, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota.

⁴ Kilpatrick, William H. “The Underlying Philosophy of Cooperative Community Activities.” *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1935, p. 543. ¶ Reprinted in Paul Hanna's *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936, p. 20.

⁵ Langfitt, R. E. “Recent Demands Upon the Principal's Time as a Result of New Emphases.” *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 222; April 1937.

(1) *Modern education requires that teachers and parents revise their traditional concept of education as separated from life*—One of our greatest obstacles to utilizing community resources is to get teachers and school patrons to think of the school as existing outside the four walls. Successful functional education cannot be achieved except as we think of the school as a part of the community, and of school activities as real life experiences. Superintendents must help to restore in a collective society that intimacy of education and community life which existed in primitive times; to make education for the child and the adult a shared experience in community living.

(2) *Recent trends in course-of-study construction require for successful administration the utilization of local resources*—In the past, state courses of study were worked out with specific pages in textbooks to be covered. This practice is changing to that of making state courses of study in the form of principles with suggested practices, leaving to the faculty the selection of local material to use for educative purposes.⁶ All emphasize as a major function of a state course of study the improvement of the professional outlook of teachers.⁷ Many issue their courses as handbooks which indicate that they are to be used as guides or outlines, leaving room for teachers, pupils, and patrons to do some constructive thinking about what experiences to provide.⁸ Some courses of study are issued in mimeographed or tentative form, which fact suggests that the publication is merely a part of a long-time program and will provide for statewide participation in constant revision.

(3) *The modern school curriculum is not a fusion of subjects or a correlation of subjects but rather an attempt to solve problems and promote school and community enterprises*—Some teachers feel that they have accomplished the desired ends if they merely bring about a mechanical mixture or "correlation" of subject material. The use of community resources will help teachers and pupils to face the problems of the parents and to make functional adaptations in the experiences of everyday life.

(4) *The degree of pupil participation in community life will vary with the willingness of parents to share social living, with the vision and adaptability of the teaching force, and with the ability of pupils to utilize opportunities available*—The 1936 Yearbook Commission for the Department of Superintendence⁹ suggested the following three degrees of participation: (a) observational, (b) participational, (c) contributinal. In the primary school (and to some extent thru all the grades) observation will be used quite extensively, but even there, as pupils show that they can be trusted to carry community responsibilities, younger children should be encouraged to contribute to community life and get

⁶ Cook, Katherine M., and others. "Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934-36*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. I, Chapter 5, p. 18, 19, 21.

⁷ Texas State Department of Education. *Handbook for Curriculum Development*. Austin: the Department, February 1936.

⁸ Virginia State Board of Education. *Tentative Course of Study for Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII*. Richmond: the Board, 1934. 560 p.

⁹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Social Studies Curriculum*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1936. Chapter 11, "The Utilization of Community Resources," p. 246-78.

the thrill that comes from a knowledge that they are of some "personal worth"¹⁰ to a real society. Many of the observational activities take the form of studies of adult modes of behavior thru excursions, projects, and the like. The school will not become a community school in a true sense unless the activities go farther than mere observational behavior. The true educational center will be the focal point for committee meetings—committees composed of parents, adult young men and women, high-school pupils, and faculty members. These committees will work together toward ends which are the concern of all. They may try to bring about a reconstruction of their community life where needed and express their interest in the progressive rebuilding of the larger democratic society.¹¹ Pooling experience and effort is the operation of true democracy in real life.

(5) *Various ages and interests may well be invited to share in curriculum planning*—The school will be limited in the degree of community participation afforded the children by the willingness of adults to share the responsibility of providing real life experiences for the children. Where adults participate in the planning, larger measures of cooperation may be expected from them in giving children opportunities to observe, participate, and contribute in social living. Progress cannot be far in advance of the willingness of patrons to support it.

(6) *Desirable activities lead from community interest to state, national, and international understanding*—The village and country have many interests in common and also conflicts of interests. If the local adjustments are made, excellent groundwork is laid for participation in the affairs of state, nation, and the world at large. Where democracy exists at home, it can be made to function abroad in the lives of those who go to larger spheres of influence. Boys and girls and the youth at large also want to understand world events and how they will be affected by changes outside the local community.¹² The selection of local material for study should be made in the light of possible relations to our communities and other nations.

(7) *Both group and individual interests will be considered in planning curriculum activities*—The welfare of the individual should be the major consideration of the social group. Great care needs to be taken that the emphasis on socialization will not make such a "fetish" of collective action that the individual is subordinated to the welfare of the state. The major purpose of collective action is to secure for each individual advantages which he cannot secure by working alone.

(8) *A community curriculum provides opportunity for adjustment for the handicapped child and for the gifted child as well*—Slow children need to find tasks where real contributions to human welfare can be made and gifted children need to find real life problems with enough challenge to bring out the use of the most complex mental functions.

(9) *Adequate records of activities would give continuity to endeavors*—The objection is often raised that teachers are likely to repeat educational experiences

¹⁰ White, Wendell. *The Psychology of Dealing with People*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. 256 p.

¹¹ Everett, Samuel, editor. *The Community School*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. 487 p.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 40-41.

for the children. Objections have also been made to the keeping of records because of the time involved. Possibly the keeping of records if desirable might be a part of the children's experience in real living.

Participation by children in planning the local experiences to be provided will indicate pupil interests and secure a more serious attitude toward activities on the part of pupils in school. If we are trying to teach democracy, we must practice it. Therefore, the more responsibility that can be assumed by children for curriculum planning, the better the total experience will be. The participation of parents and other adults, such as the youth who is not in school, will not only aid in developing a well-balanced curriculum but also will suggest desirable learning experiences which should be provided for the adults themselves. If the school is to be a community school, a part of real life, the needs of the adults as well as those of the children must be considered.

Of course, teachers must assist in planning and organizing the educational activities. Their cooperation and understanding as well as their contributions would obviously be needed. Building a community school, a democratic school, is largely a matter of educating children, teachers, parents, and other adults to the viewpoints inherent in modern education.

Technics in the Adaptation of Teachers, Children, and Laymen to a Functional Curriculum

Most of the technics described in this section depend upon a cooperative point of view by all concerned.¹³ How to take the attitude of the other fellow, how to test points of conflict in opinion, how to pool the products of creative thinking, how to serve as a member of a cooperating group, how to plan—these are but a few of the abilities that may be acquired and developed by the following cooperative activities.

*A survey of community resources for educational purposes may well be made by faculties, parents, and pupils*¹⁴—It would be very

¹³ National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Teachers and Cooperation*. (Issued by the Committee in Charge of the Yearbook on Cooperation.) Washington, D. C.: the Department, November 1937. 84 p.

¹⁴ References which might be useful to a community survey committee are: Ann Arbor, Michigan, Board of Education. *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order*. Ann Arbor Course of Study. Ann Arbor, Mich.: the Board, 1933. 307 p. ¶ Brunner, E. de S. *Surveying Your Community: A Handbook of Method for the Rural Church*. New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1925. 109 p. ¶ Brunner, E. de S. *Village Communities*. New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1927. 244 p. ¶ Brunner, E. de S., and Kolb, J. H. *Rural Social Trends*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. 386 p. ¶ Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. 642 p. ¶ Lynd, Robert S., and Lynd, Helen Merrell. *Middletown: A Study in Contemporary American Culture*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1929. 550 p.

difficult for each teacher to attempt to make a survey of resources for educational purposes, but with the cooperation of other teachers, pupils, and parents much time and energy may be saved. Each group must adapt the procedure to the local community, observing the rules of common sense and good taste. Some questions which might be raised are: (a) What are the major problems of the community? (b) What are the occupations of the people? (c) What organizations exist in the community? What are their functions? (d) What is the history of the local community? (e) Should each child attempt to trace his ancestry? Customs and traditions of various nationalities may thus be discovered.

The Ohio State Department of Education lists the following classes of agencies which may be considered with reference to values for school-community articulation: (a) written agencies, such as school paper, letters to parents, and local newspapers; (b) visual agencies, such as motion pictures, posters, and exhibits; (c) oral agencies, such as radio talks and public addresses; and (d) social agencies, by which is meant the participation of teachers and pupils in various aspects of community life—social, recreational, religious, and welfare.¹⁵

Sources which may be tapped in a survey of resources as suggested by Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom are: (a) minutes of board of education, (b) newspaper files, (c) local county and state historical society, (d) state archives, (e) reports of local government agencies, (f) geological survey maps, (g) federal census data, (h) income tax figures, (i) church records, (j) information from older teachers and residents, (k) class projects in social studies based on local data, (l) records in the town or county clerk's office, (m) chamber of commerce or board of trade publications, (n) state reports and state statistics, (o) studies and surveys previously made, and (p) duplicates of old programs, pamphlets, and other publications.¹⁶

In the 1938 yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, Holdford reported the survey technic used by the teachers of Bethlehem Central School, Delmar, New York, during the year 1936-37. They used the following outline: (a) local industries and resources; (b) local historical events and data; (c) contacts with laymen and local artists; (d) community recreational facilities; (e) physio-

¹⁵ Ohio State Department of Education. *High School Standards, 1937*. Columbus: the Department, 1937. p. 68.

¹⁶ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. p. 376-77.

graphical features of the locality; (f) cultural, industrial, and social centers; and (g) occupational activities.¹⁷

Interviews—Pupils may be used under some circumstances to interview persons in the community to secure information, to arrange for an excursion, or to secure cooperation. In selecting the pupil to do the interviewing, the teacher will consider (a) the possible reaction of the person to being interviewed by a pupil, (b) the personality of the pupil, (c) the possible antagonism between parents, and (d) the nature of the information or cooperation to be secured.

Care must be taken to plan in advance and write down what is wanted. Much opposition may develop and much time may be wasted by going for information without a specific record of what is wanted. Questions to be asked should be written down and a method of recording answers made. Care must also be taken to find out first if the information can be secured from other sources.

Care must also be taken by the teacher to obtain the approval and support of the superintendent or the school trustees, because persons called upon many times to furnish information may become irritated by the demands for time. After the information is secured, a careful record should be made and filed in such form that it may be available for future years. It should not be necessary to go for data to the same source year after year. In most cases, the teacher should either accompany the child doing the interviewing or arrange for the interview in advance. Older high-school pupils will, of course, be able to do much more interviewing than younger ones. Information which anyone is reluctant to give should never be sought by the immature.

Excursions—School excursions and field trips have long been used in foreign countries, such as Germany, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, on all levels of instruction and for varying lengths of time, or as stated in *Extra-curricular Activities in the Elementary Schools*, "This procedure has been utilized in teaching for centuries, but it has been curiously neglected in modern times."¹⁸

School excursions offer fine opportunities for utilizing community resources to supplement instruction. They are vital experiences for elementary and secondary pupils, especially under skilful guidance.

¹⁷ Holdford, Anne V. "Local Environment as a Source of Instructional Materials." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. p. 100.

¹⁸ Allen, C. F.; Alexander, T. R.; and Means, H. W. *Extra-curricular Activities in the Elementary Schools*. St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Publishing Co., 1937. p. 349.

Such trips give some initial understanding of the simple activities of the community and are rich in opportunities for discovery and explorations of real situations.¹⁹

In the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, entitled *Materials of Instruction*, it is pointed out that field trips in proportion to their cost rank high as effective firsthand experiences for the following reasons: (a) the field trip acquaints the child with the life situations in his neighborhood; (b) it enables the pupil to learn of his own environment thru observation and experience; and (c) the field trip stimulates interest in the home and community problems—it brings useful concepts to the lessons in geography, community civics, local history, and vocations.²⁰

Every grade from kindergarten thru the senior high school can profit by these excursions. The purpose of school excursions is to give the pupil experiences and information that can be gained best out in the field. Occasionally in the development of a unit, pupils reach a point at which there is a specific need for data which may be obtained from the field.²¹ Excursions properly used will help to enrich, vitalize, and supplement classroom instruction. They give pupil and teacher an opportunity to get acquainted with things they are going to do and learn. They give the pupil an opportunity to know the geography, people, soil, farms, and other natural resources of his home district and state. An excursion might have as a purpose the orientation of pupils. For example, a small high school invited and planned a rural school visiting day for about fifteen rural school eighth-grade classes. The purpose of the excursion for each of these eighth-graders was to have an opportunity to get acquainted with the high school that he hoped to attend the following year. The purpose of the excursion for the secondary school was to acquaint the pupils from these rural schools with the pupils, staff, plant, and curriculum of the secondary school.²²

Before going on an excursion the teacher in charge should plan carefully for the trip. He may be assisted with the planning by a

¹⁹ Ade, Lester K. *Expanding the Classroom*. Harrisburg, Pa.: Department of Public Instruction, 1938. 72 p.

²⁰ National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Materials of Instruction*. Eighth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1935. p. 88-89.

²¹ Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction. *Suggestions for the Development and Use of Curriculum Materials in the Elementary Schools*. Harrisburg: the Department, 1936. p. 43.

²² In the *Oklahoma Teacher* for November 1938, Edith R. Force describes how students in nine junior and senior high schools of small school systems cooperated in an excursion directed by university professors of botany, geology, and nature study.

committee of pupils in his class. The objectives and purpose of the trip should be clearly determined. Rarely should pupils be taken out of school when it would be more economical to bring the material or objects to the classroom.

After the need of the trip has been established, the teacher should make arrangements with the administration of the school, getting permission to use school buses,²³ sending out notices to parents, and making the request of the firm to be visited. Care should be taken to have available at the place on the day of the visit someone who can explain the working machinery and use of materials. The firms which will be visited by most small schools do not have trained guides for visitors. After the teacher has made preliminary arrangements for a survey, he should visit the place and become acquainted with the situation so he can prepare his class for the visit. At this time he determines how long it will take to make the visit; what can be seen; who is in charge of the place; how many can go thru at one time; what is the best time of the day to go; what time of the week, month, or year is best; what the cost will be; what kind of equipment is necessary; and what safety precautions can be made. His next step is to prepare a list of those who can get parental approval to go. The pupils must understand that rigid discipline is necessary to avoid accidents.²⁴ It has been stated that few accidents have occurred on European excursions. Like regular instruction in the classroom, complete, accurate, and purposeful planning, execution, and evaluation must be made if the excursion is to be a success.

The possibilities for excursion teaching vary from school to school.²⁵ Some of the places visited by schools are farms, gardens, zoos, stores, post offices, railroad stations, bus terminals, filling stations, factories, shops, mines, museums, offices, banks, hospitals, dairies, hotels, airports, courthouses, parks, churches, theaters, broadcasting stations, wharves, schools, and places of historical interest.²⁶

²³ Egan, Louella. "We Go Places—An Excursion Program." *Childhood Education* 13: 266-68; February 1937.

²⁴ One aspect of the transportation problem has to do with the question of liability of the schoolboard and teachers in case of an accident. On the basis of somewhat conflicting views, it appears best to transport children in school buses or chartered buses that are protected by adequate insurance. The practice of using private automobiles is generally not to be recommended. See the 1936 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, *The Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 252-53.

²⁵ Scanlan, William. "Excursions to Local Industries." *Minnesota Journal of Education* 17: 337-38; April 1937.

²⁶ Heffernan, Helen, and Potter, Gladys L. "Adapting Curriculum to the Small Rural School." *Educational Method* 17: 51-59; November 1937.

After the place and purpose of the excursion have been determined and other arrangements completed, the teacher should prepare the pupils who are to take the trip so that they can get the most out of it. Pupils will be told what they are to look for and how to gather information to bring back to the classroom. In certain instances, samples are distributed to all pupils or to members of the committee. The teacher will plan to orient his class so that a minimum of time will be needed for explanation on the trip. For small pupils these experiences should be simple, but the plans should be made accurately for their protection. They should not be taken to places that will confuse or frighten them because of noise, complicated machinery, or processes. As the older pupils participate on the trips, more and more responsibility can be placed on committees of pupils, under teacher direction. This older group of pupils can be expected to understand more complex machinery. They can answer more questions and can generalize. They will want to explore on their own account. They will enjoy helping make arrangements. They should be stimulated to organize their materials around problems that can be used in making a specific report.

Some of the outcomes that one can expect from successful excursions are opportunities for development of desirable social practices, courtesy, and consideration for others; learning on the part of the pupils to pool their experiences, clear up misunderstandings, organize their material, and make a final report which can be left in the school library or grade library for the new group of pupils who enter a given grade or room.

In brief, no school journey should be attempted without (a) evaluation of the experience in advance, (b) previous investigation by the teacher of the place to be visited, (c) careful provision being made for transportation, (d) preparation of pupils by developing a knowledge of what to look for and having them take along a record book, (e) utilizing avenues of instruction for which the trip is made—not ordinarily found in the school, and (f) a follow-up on return to school by discussions, coordination, and the making of desired records.

Examples of Activities for Primary and Elementary Schools

For purposes of analysis a few illustrative activities have been grouped under the headings (a) observational, (b) participatory,

and (c) contributory. Any particular activity may have one or all of these elements depending upon the roles of the learners. In observational activities the pupil is a relatively passive "onlooker"; some active experiencing is required in the participatory type; while the contributory activity is characterized by advanced creative and socializing elements. Fortunately many new textbooks are being published with these types of activities in mind.

Observational

(1) *Post office*—One group of children planned a visit to the post office by listing the questions they wanted answered. They visited the local post office and saw how letters were received, postmarked, sorted, and the like. They interviewed the postman, and a committee went with him on his route. They also examined a mail car. Phases of the activity included writing letters, sending valentines, collecting pictures, making an exhibit of stamps, and holding a program on the subject.²⁷

(2) *Safety*—(a) On the farm: local accidents, record of losses, rural highways, power machines, falls by children and adults, sharp tools, farm animals, fire, wells, rats and other disease-bearing animals, poison gases, and prevention;²⁸ (b) in the home: local accidents, bedroom, darkness, bathroom, stairways, stones, electrocution, poison, fire, mechanical equipment, and gas; (c) on the highway: local accidents, pedestrians, bicycles, reckless drivers, and traffic rules; (d) in the school: buses, passing between classes, playgrounds, fires, earthquakes, and storms.

(3) *Local industry*—Railroad stations, grain elevators, canneries, grocery stores, sugar beet farms, wheat farms, dairies, lumber yards and sawmills,²⁹ airports, telephone exchanges, banks, newspaper and printing offices, fox and bird farms, hardware stores, factories, and hospitals.

(4) *Public and governmental activities*—Fish hatcheries, water works, libraries, weather bureaus, dams and reservoirs, museums, and soil conservation projects.³⁰

(5) *Homes*—Furnishings, plans, electrification of farms, and heating systems.

(6) *Nature study*³¹—Animals, forests, hills, rivers, deserts, prairies, birds, insects, rocks, and soil.

²⁷ Scott, Robert, and Taylor, Jessie. *The Activity Program, Its Theory and Practice in Hennepin County*. Minneapolis, Minn.: the Authors.

²⁸ U. S. Department of Commerce. *How to Prevent Farm Accidents, How to Stop Home Accidents*, and "Safety Education thru Schools," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, November 1938, 64 p.

²⁹ Holdford, Anne V., *op. cit.*, p. 98-109.

³⁰ Heffernan, Helen. "Newer Types of Instruction in the Social Studies." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. p. 65.

³¹ Dunn, Fannie W. "Natural Sciences in the Modern Rural School." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. Chapter 5, p. 73-86.

Participatory

- (1) *Landscaping*—Home gardening, parks, and schoolgrounds.
- (2) *Animals*—Poultry raising, pets,³² and farm animals.
- (3) *Community events*—Church festivals, picnics, community councils, county fairs, school exhibits, farm bureau institutes,³³ and vacation schools.³⁴

Contributory

- (1) *School activities*—Cafeteria,³⁵ student council, traffic patrols, clean-up squads, and puppet shows.³⁶
- (2) *Youth organizations*—Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Four-H Club, Young Citizens' League,³⁷ and church groups.
- (3) *Cultural activities of the community*—Orchestras, bands, choirs, debating clubs, and forums.
- (4) *Services to the community*—Local newspapers,³⁸ landscaping and gardens,³⁹ and town directory.

Types of Community Resources for Use in Secondary Schools

The maturity of the secondary pupils increases the possibility of drawing upon the community for experiences which enrich the curriculum. The opportunities for integrating the more or less isolated subject courses thru activities are clearly indicated by the following suggestions.

Observational

- (1) Botanical materials⁴⁰ and other materials for class work in science are used.
- (2) Geographical and geological possibilities are found in every community.
- (3) Sociological surveys have been conducted by teachers and children for study and improvement.

³² Reeves, Katherine. "Building Social Cooperativeness." *Childhood Education* 13: 53-58; October 1936.

³³ Shepherd, Lou A. "The Rural School and Its Community." *Childhood Education* 14: 264-67; February 1938.

³⁴ Bain, Winifred E. "Prospective Teachers Learn to Live with Their Neighbors." *Childhood Education* 14: 245-51; February 1938.

³⁵ Means, Blanche. "A Cafeteria in a Small School." *Journal of the National Education Association* 26: 247; November 1937.

³⁶ Myers, Galene. "The Hand Puppet Comes to School in Excelsior." *Minnesota Journal of Education* 18: 251-52; March 1938.

³⁷ South Dakota State Department of Public Instruction. *The Young Citizens' League; Helps and Suggestions for Organizing*. Pierre: the Department.

³⁸ Scott, Robert, and Taylor, Jessie, *op. cit.*, p. 40.

³⁹ Crofoot, Bess L. "Teaching Rural Children Elementary Science." *Childhood Education* 14: 206-209, January 1938.

⁴⁰ Ryan, Carson V. "Science with the Eastern Cherokee Indians." *Progressive Education* 15: 143-46; February 1938.

(4) Technological resources, such as "farming, use of cellulose, construction, trades and crafts, communication and transportation, power and mechanics"⁴¹ are used.

(5) Historical resources abound in every community; pioneers may be interviewed and records taken from historical societies, and the like.⁴²

(6) Art: in many communities, artists are at work and all communities have material to stimulate creative ability. Pictures in schools, art museums, and the like have been used for study.

(7) Community sanitation: pupils at Montpelier, Ohio, visited the health commissioner and secured information on regulations regarding handling of milk.

(8) Meat markets, groceries, furniture stores, and woolen mills are used at Montpelier, Ohio, by the home economics class as major sources of information; girls at Fairgrove, Michigan, learn meat-cutting in the meat market.

(9) Livestock farms and others are utilized by agriculture classes.

(10) Grain elevators, fertilizer plant, creameries, sugar beet factory, and soy bean refinery are sources of education for vocational agriculture groups at Montpelier, Ohio.

(11) Banks, telephone exchanges, post offices, and other business houses provide interesting study materials in junior business training.

(12) The newspaper office was visited by English and journalism classes at Montpelier, Ohio.

(13) Public library and interviews with pioneers have furnished valuable information for history classes at Montpelier, Ohio.

(14) Machine shops are visited by pupils of physics at Greenville, Pennsylvania.

(15) Model farms are visited by pupils of the agriculture classes at Greenville, Pennsylvania, and at Fairgrove, Michigan.

(16) Business and professional men in many cities visit the school to tell vocational guidance groups about their work and invite pupils to visit them at work.

(17) Fire departments and jails are studied by pupils at Greenville, Pennsylvania.

(18) Courthouse and municipal offices in local and nearby towns serve as a means of learning about the functions of a public official.

(19) Funerals and various community ceremonies serve as material for study in manners and customs.

Participatory

(1) Coordinating council or community council: faculty representatives, community leaders representing various interests and organizations, and representatives of school pupils meet to plan the community activities and to provide for cooperative achievement. Community problems are solved insofar as possible.⁴³

⁴¹ Beecher, George. "Resources for Learning in Alamance Co., North Carolina." *Progressive Education* 15: 140-42; February 1938.

⁴² *Ibid.*

⁴³ Dickson, Virgil E. "The Coordinating Council and the School." *California Journal of Secondary Education* 13: 21-23; January 1938.

- (2) Preparation of a calendar of community events.
- (3) Landscaping school and home grounds.
- (4) Election procedures are studied and children use voting machines at Greenville, Pennsylvania.
- (5) School and community museum.
- (6) Community fairs and county fairs: school children serve in responsible positions in many communities in planning, preparing exhibits, and in administering the community projects.
- (7) Hobby shows have been managed partly or entirely by school children.
- (8) School organizations help to increase participation in school and community life.

(a) The student council or other all-school organization serves as a means of practicing democratic participation in social affairs.⁴⁴ It is an excellent educative agency where it is properly controlled.⁴⁵ At Masontown, West Virginia, pupil participation cared for all activities except those in the classroom.⁴⁶ The stability of national democracy is assured where democracy is practiced in community life.

(b) Four-H Clubs, Sons of American Legion, the Grange, Farm Bureaus, and Future Farmers of America are community organizations in which high-school pupils may share the experience in community socialization.

(c) Many school clubs derive inspiration from adults in the community. Such clubs as the Y.M.C.A., Hi-Y, and the like, are encouraged by ministers and other religious leaders in the community.

(d) Auditorium activities furnish a splendid opportunity for social integration in the school and community. When they are organized and managed by pupil groups under teacher and parent guidance, the educational possibilities are very great.

(9) Commencement activities serve as a means of giving the children and parents a chance to evaluate the educative achievements as a result of community nurturing.⁴⁷

(10) Vocational education thru participation in community life.

The possibilities of using the community as a vocational laboratory are limited by the occupations represented, by the willingness of the adults to cooperate, and by the ingenuity of the faculty and pupils. Kraushaar emphasizes the fact that such a method of providing such training in the community is more useful, and the only possible method in many communities.⁴⁸ Clark suggests the desir-

⁴⁴ Hannan, Lester T. *Life at Thirteen*. Hamburg, N. Y.: Board of Education, Hamburg Public Schools.

⁴⁵ Archer, C. P. "School Government as an Educative Agency." *School Review* 31: 430-38; June 1923. ¶ Vredevoogd, L. E. "Providing Means for Student Participation Through the Curriculum." *Bulletin* 22: 103-10; March 1938. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

⁴⁶ Ferriss, Emory N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. Roy. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. p. 167.

⁴⁷ National Education Association, Division of Publications. *Vitalized Commencement Manual*, 1938. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1938. 64 p.

⁴⁸ Kraushaar, R. W. "Vocational Education in Rural Setting." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 261-62; April 1937.

ability of surveying the small community to locate opportunities for employment and to serve as a guide in training.⁴⁰

With higher birth-rates in rural districts than in urban areas, it is obvious that much of the work of the cities in the future will be done by the men and women who were born in the country and in small towns.⁵⁰ Vocational guidance information should, therefore, include possibilities in nearby cities and in the nation at large. At Jamestown, North Dakota, East Grand Forks, Minnesota, and in many other communities, the commercial departments find business concerns willing to provide actual participation in vocational training. The full plan for vocational training in the community has been in operation in the village of Carmel, N. Y., a village of 800 population.⁵¹

Contributory

(1) Pupils have organized and managed cooperatives for the community and for the school. An outstanding example is the Norris School Produce Company⁵² which became a major curriculum enterprise with production, sales, accounting, and advertising departments. Personal service cooperatives such as insurance, have also been organized.⁵³

(2) Radio broadcasting such as at Terry, Montana,⁵⁴ where high-school pupils planned radio programs, including dramatic productions, and put them on the air.

(3) Farm and home shop repairing.

(4) Home furnishings are improved by the pupils at Montpelier, Ohio.

Cautions To Be Observed

Too frequently the tendency is to assume that all educational problems can be solved by the discovery—often rediscovery—of a particular device or technic. This fanatical worship of a particular procedure to the exclusion of others tends to make the method an end in itself. It contributes to the belief in lay circles that educators are easily diverted by “fads and frills.” The purpose of the present chapter has been to indicate the possibilities of *enrichment* thru the use of community resources. Brief mention, however, should be made of the limitations and difficulties involved.

⁴⁰ Clark, Florence E. “Occupational Information in the Small Community.” *Occupations* 16: 117-22; November 1937.

⁵⁰ National Education Association, Research Division. “Population Trends and Their Educational Implications.” *Research Bulletin* 16: 39; January 1938.

⁵¹ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Bulletin, 1934. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. p. 55.

⁵² Hogan, Ralph M. “The Norris School Cooperative: An Experiment in Integration.” *Curriculum Journal* 8: 59-63; February 1937.

⁵³ Landis, Benson Y. “The Cooperative Movement.” *Journal of the National Education Association* 26: 11-26; January 1937.

⁵⁴ Baldwin, Boyd F. “Broadcasting as a High-School Activity.” *Bulletin* 21: 27-29; November 1937. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

(1) The material must be sufficiently unfamiliar to hold the interest. Many things seen every day, however, are not understood.

(2) An activity has been chosen for the wrong grade if a large number of the pupils concerned can do nothing with it.⁵⁵ "An analysis of the degree of difficulty in the type of thinking involved" should be made.⁵⁶

(3) Because of wide variations in ability within a grade, it is difficult to select activities which are difficult enough to challenge the brighter children and which can at the same time come within the comprehension of the slower members of the group.⁵⁷ This is a problem wherever group activities of any kind are provided. If the range of difficulty of the group is known, some adjustments may be made for individual differences thru differentiated assignments to individual responsibilities.

(4) Material should be continually appraised as to its educative value.

(5) Pupil excursions by classes or pupil committees may become a nuisance to businessmen and other adults. This difficulty may be partly overcome by visits in advance by the teacher.

(6) Education may become too local unless activities are selected which can be followed thru to meaningful connections with national and international life.

(7) Excursions and other activities to study community resources may be poorly organized so that much time is wasted and educational values lost.

(8) Single activities may extend over too long a period of time. The duration of a study will vary with the level of maturity of children, the variety in the activities, and other factors.

(9) Community conflicts may be aroused over opposing interests (such as economic) or as a result of different points of view. Interests of small businessmen may conflict with a proposal to organize a cooperative store. Discussion of issues involving politics, religion, personal sanitation, and the like may cause trouble unless carefully handled.

(10) The building of a community school should be a gradual process rather than a sudden change. Beginning with observational activities, some participation, and some contributions, children and adults may be led gradually to share in the "risks of living,"⁵⁸ so that the children may rise to the responsibilities of real life issues as they demonstrate their ability and willingness to participate and contribute to community life. As parents and other adults develop confidence in youth and see the educational possibilities, the walls which separate the school from the community may be pulled away, but too sudden a change without adequate preparation by teachers and others may be disastrous.

(11) Mechanistic or one-way relationships are to be avoided.⁵⁹ Dominance of teachers over children, administrators over parents or teachers or children,

⁵⁵ Kelty, Mary G. *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1936. p. 7-8.

⁵⁶ Kelty, Mary G. "Adjustment of the Materials of the Social Sciences to the General Mental Development of Children in the Middle Grades." *Educational Method* 16: 113-20; December 1936.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

⁵⁸ Gruenberg, Sidonie M. "Wanted: A Chance to Share in the Risks of Living." *Child Study* 15: 40; November 1937.

⁵⁹ Bristow, William H. "The Place of Parents in School and Community Relationships." *Proceedings of Twenty-First Annual Meeting*. Supplement to Bulletin No. 65. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.), 1937. p. 6.

will ruin community relationships. The school should not merely ask for something but should give. Organic or two-way relationships are conducive to development of mutual confidence.

Recreation ⁶⁰

Most small school systems, since it is required by state laws, have provided some kind of program in recreation and physical education.⁶¹ Often the course is so formalized as to have little appeal to children and youth who live on farms and in small towns. By way of contrast, larger communities have in recent years developed recreational programs for the benefit of both youth and adults. In the small communities, however, this development has not been as rapid because of the old idea that people living in small communities do not need recreational facilities. The assumption has been that a community plan for "healthful living" is not needed by those who follow agriculture and related occupations.

One of the imperative problems for the small school system is to provide the leadership in making these recreational needs apparent; and with wise school leadership, there is little doubt but that the public response will be wholehearted and enthusiastic. As suggested by the California state bulletin, *Physical Education in Small Rural Schools*,⁶² a program of physical education, including athletic events, games, and community festivals will be appreciated in any small community in America. Handicraft classes, sewing, quilting, weaving, and many other diversions are the normal inheritance of those living in the community. Marble tournaments for the boys, and basketball games and horseshoe pitching contests in which the adults of the community participate in the evenings, also provide diversions in which the adult citizen may become interested. Special holiday programs built around the lives of great men attract a normal community interest. All such activities find a normal sponsorship among certain individuals and groups. The interest aroused by these groups who will become active participants in a wholesome recreational program provides a stimulus for the school to assume the leadership in meeting the recreational needs of the community. The community,

⁶⁰ This section was prepared with the assistance of Hugo Fischer, acting supervisor of health and physical education, Minnesota State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota.

⁶¹ As a result of this legislation, state departments of education have produced many helpful bulletins, for example: Wieland, John A. *Physical Education: An Integrated Program for the Elementary School*. Circular No. 292. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1937. 51 p.

⁶² California State Department of Education. *Physical Education in Small Rural Schools*. Bulletin No. 2. Sacramento: the Department, 1938. 75 p.

thru its churches and other organized groups, will provide a certain amount of the leadership in a movement designed for a community program of recreation.

Provisions should be made for play areas and community centers where children will want to attend regularly in order to participate in the organized games taught by trained supervisors. There must be wholesome activities in which the young people can engage. It is far better for the leaders of the community to participate in well-conducted school dances and other wholesome activities than it is to drive the child into other types of amusement which may be objectionable. Summer camps, activities such as swimming and basket-making, and active troops of Boy and Girl Scouts should challenge a community leader to render his maximum service for community growth and development.

It may be desirable that the small school community have a plot of land definitely laid out as a recreational center. The Works Progress Administration, Washington, D. C., has suggested that such a center have at least the minimum features of picnic grounds, horse-shoe pitching courts, and a small community building.⁶³ There would be many settings which have the desirable natural attributes for such a plot. Trees, of course, should form an attractive background. It is preferable that a small stream or brook run thru the area, and there should be enough level space to permit the laying out of a baseball diamond, tennis courts, and football field. The plan for the community house should conform as nearly as possible to local architecture, and may use for construction the stone that is found on the grounds. The plan should include a large room which could be used for dancing, social occasions, festivals, motion pictures, games, and indoor suppers. An adequate kitchen should be equipped for serving and preparing food for a large number of people. Here can be conducted classes in homemaking, canning, serving, and preserving. There should be a community library for use of all who desire the quiet of a reading room. If possible, this building should include, in the basement, locker rooms and showers.

The plans for the outside amusements should also be made elaborate or simple, as funds and needs dictate. The ideal play spot should include a swimming pool, independent of the brook, a wading pool,

⁶³ Works Progress Administration. *Community Organization for Leisure*. Washington, D. C.: the Administration, January 14, 1936.

a baseball diamond, football field, tennis courts, basketball court, and horseshoe courts for men, women, and children. The smaller children should be cared for with a sandbox adjacent to the wading pool, and such playground equipment as slides, horizontal bars, swings, ladders, and marble courts.

In communities where the interest is sufficient, a part of this recreation site might lend itself into transformation into a theater. Delightful presentations may be given with a background of shrubbery and trees. In case of more formal stage effects, a wall can be made with chicken wire and vines. A terraced stand of seats could be erected at a suitable distance from the stage for the spectators. In such a setting one-act plays, concerts, pageants, and festivals can be most attractive.

Education of the Exceptional Child

Children who deviate so seriously from normal as to require adjustments of the regular program are usually designated as "exceptional." Eight types are recognized as follows: (a) the crippled, (b) the hard-of-hearing, (c) the partially seeing and blind, (d) the speech defective, (e) the children of lowered vitality, (f) the mentally retarded, (g) the gifted, and (h) those with behavior difficulties.⁶⁴ In spite of financial limitations often found in small communities, a fivefold program is possible:

- (1) To provide teachers with a general background of the possible physical, mental, and social maladjustments.
- (2) To help each teacher recognize the existence of maladjustment in every classroom.
- (3) To assist teachers in studying individual children so as to locate various types of deviates.
- (4) To apply "first aid" to those exceptional children who may respond to preliminary measures.
- (5) To seek further help from specialists when the preliminary measures are not adequate.⁶⁵

Carpenter,⁶⁶ teacher of special boys' classes in the Lyster School, Detroit, Michigan, has described a successful project in transporta-

⁶⁴ For details as to these types, their needs and education, consult the following federal Office of Education pamphlets: No. 40, 1933, *Blind and Partially Seeing Children*; No. 41, 1933, *Gifted Children*; No. 49, 1934, *Mentally Retarded Children*; No. 54, 1934, *Deaf and Hard of Hearing Children*; No. 55, 1934, *Crippled Children*; and No. 56, 1934, *Children of Lowered Vitality*. Order from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

⁶⁵ Adapted from the bulletins referred to in footnote 64.

⁶⁶ Carpenter, Doris E. "A Transportation Project for Retarded Boys." *Journal of Exceptional Children*. December 1937.

tion in which the boys by firsthand contacts built models of transportation and correlated all their schoolwork in the activities carried on in connection with the project. Similar units of study can be worked out in small school systems to give to the less gifted children the opportunity for development which will make them socially constructive in the community. In vocational work, interest can be developed for a trade which they may later desire to follow as a life's vocation.

The problem of the exceptionally bright child, who in the traditional school is held back, creates an equally serious difficulty. Special projects should be developed for those children who show particular aptitudes in various fields, which will give them opportunity for creative work. Art, music, physical education, vocational work—all provide opportunities for further development of the exceptionally brilliant child. Teachers in some sections of the country have come back to school on Saturday mornings and have given special instruction to especially gifted children in work which is more advanced than that given during the week. Special programs for the exceptionally gifted child will also create good feeling in the minds of the parents for the school. The fact that the child is being given special attention and is being given an opportunity to develop to the maximum of his capacity is rendering the community a signal service.

In most communities there are a number of children who have physical disabilities which prevent their attending school. A program carried on for teaching these children in their homes will give them opportunities for learning which they have not heretofore had. The school administration should make a survey of the cases of the physically handicapped so that a knowledge of the extent of the problem will be available. Information may be obtained from many large school systems as to the content of courses, methods, and devices best suited to special instruction. A number of the existing books in the area are specific and practical in their proposals.⁶⁷ Chapters III, IV, and VII of the present yearbook offer many suggestions for adapting the educational program to the individual.

⁶⁷ For example: Bentley, John Edward. *Problem Children*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1936. 437 p. ¶ Inskip, Annie D. *Child Adjustment in Relation to Growth and Development*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1930. 427 p. ¶ Blauch, Lloyd E. *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Physically Disabled*. Staff Study No. 9, Advisory Committee on Education. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 101 p.

Vocational Education⁶⁸

In this section the discussion will be confined to vocational education, either federally aided or independent of such aid, as it applies to the youth who have not completed their high-school training. Its relationship to adult education will be discussed in the next section.

The general concept of vocational education as stated by Jessen and other writers, plus certain statistical data, are given as a background.

Vocational education as it is here discussed will be understood as education which fits youth for useful employment, providing training in the technic of the various occupations as well as in related subjects—science, mathematics, history, geography, and literature—which are useful to men and women both as workers and as citizens; which trains those already employed in a trade or industrial occupation or in the field of agriculture to become more proficient in the work in which they are engaged; and which trains girls, young women. . . . In its very nature vocational education is unalterably tied in with the secondary-school system.⁶⁹

Vocational education may be broadly defined to include all those experiences whereby one learns to carry on a useful occupation. . . . The plan of education should be broad enough to provide the necessary opportunities for vocational education without sharply segregating them and setting them up under separate organization.⁷⁰

Vocational education is not in conflict with general education but is an integral part of it and should, therefore, be expected to reinforce it.⁷¹

If we are to aid our young people to become contented, productive workers, we must train them with due regard for their capacities and interests. . . . Our common goal for vocational subjects is the best possible preparation of our youth for effective social and occupational life in a dynamic civilization.⁷²

It is generally admitted that the schools must assume greater functions in the vocational fields.⁷³ There are also available facts which indicate that in the past few years schools have increased their specifically recognized subject offerings in the vocational fields. In the November 1937 issue of *School Life* the total number of schools

⁶⁸ This section was prepared with the assistance of H. T. Widdowson, supervisor of trade and industrial education, Minnesota State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota.

⁶⁹ Jessen, Carl A. "Trends in Secondary Education." *Biennial Survey of Education: 1934-36*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. I, Chapter 2, p. 18. (Advance pages.)

⁷⁰ Advisory Committee on Education. *Report of the Committee*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. p. 74-75.

⁷¹ Snedden, David. *The Problem of Vocational Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910. p. 82.

⁷² Dugdale, R. E. "Problems of Vocational Education." *American School Board Journal* 97: 21-24; November 1938.

⁷³ Advisory Committee on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 112.

reporting their enrolments in thirty-two vocational subjects increased by 2900 from 1928 to 1934, while the total student enrolment increased by about one and one-half millions. The fields showing the greatest increases were home economics, industrial subjects, and agriculture.

A five-year study of 92,539 high-school graduates one year after graduation, made by the Minnesota State Department of Education, shows that about 35 percent of those young people continued their education in some form; about 45 percent were employed as clerks, helpers, and waiters, and as workers on the farm, at home, or in other positions; about 12 percent were unemployed; about 2 percent were married; and about 6 percent were unaccounted for.⁷⁴

The altered economic situation, which has become acute within recent years, means that society for its own welfare should provide universal secondary education at public expense. Society's major task must be to give each boy and girl an opportunity to secure that kind of secondary education which will lead to the fullest individual development and to the richest service to society.⁷⁵

The problem of vocational education in the small school system is very definitely a problem of secondary education, because facilities for vocational schools, such as those located in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota, are not generally available. This means that secondary education in these small schools must include not only an academic foundation for those going on to school and eventually into the professions but also the academic foundation and the vocational concept which will prepare the pupils for occupational understanding and efficiency thru training in related courses, as well as thru experience on the jobs where they are to be employed as clerks in banks and in hardware, grocery, drug, and other stores, as waiters or waitresses, as mechanics, as oil-station attendants, and as helpers in creameries and on the farm.

The first problem, then, is to understand the needs, interests, abilities, and capacities of the pupil. The second problem is to know the various jobs in a given community and their availability and to have

⁷⁴ Berning, T. J., and Wulff, Margaret. *The Status of the June, 1936, Minnesota Public High-School Graduates One Year after Graduation, June, 1937*. St. Paul, Minn.: State Department of Education. p. 14.

⁷⁵ Minnesota State Department of Education. *Manual for Graded Elementary and Secondary Schools*. St. Paul: the Department, 1935. p. 15-17. ¶ See also: Ade, Lester K. *Vocational Agriculture in Pennsylvania*. Bulletin No. 250. Harrisburg, Pa.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1938. 24 p. ¶ Ade, Lester K. *Equipment for a Department of Vocational Agriculture*. Bulletin No. 252. Harrisburg, Pa.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1938. 14 p.

a definite cooperative plan of bringing the classroom closer to the employing agencies in the community. Illustrations of community surveys of this type are to be found in Fresno and Yuba County, California, and in Canton, Ohio.⁷⁶

Space will not permit a detailed discussion of the various types of vocational education available. Therefore, only one type has been selected for discussion; namely, part-time education for those who are about to complete school and enter into the occupational field. There are definite limits to part-time education because of the limited number of facilities that will be available for the pupils.

Part-time education—The type of training needed by many young people is not the kind generally offered by the typical public high school today, nor could the high school offer complete preparatory training. It is true that one could find some rather brilliant cases of young people whose training in the public school was specific for the "jobs" they have and in which they are satisfied. The problem for those interested in the young worker is not centered about the four or five who will succeed in spite of, not because of, what the schools will do for them but about the eighty or ninety out of a hundred who need help at a time when it will do the most good; namely, during the job-adjustment period. From school environment to job environment is a wider gap than many school people realize and a closer study of the situation will, it is hoped, bring about greater recognition of the need for part-time education for young persons.

Administrators especially are increasingly recognizing the problems confronting the young worker. In many places plans for part-time classes have been worked out which are serious attempts to help young people solve the problems they will meet on their first jobs. Some of the outstanding characteristics of these part-time classes are as follows:

- (1) They offer instruction in subjects given to enlarge the vocational or civic intelligence of workers over sixteen years of age but still in school who have entered employment.

- (2) The work must be organized in such a way as will permit the young workers to spend part of their time in school and part of their time at work.

⁷⁶ University of California and State Board of Education, Division of Vocational Education. *A Study of Vocational Conditions in the City of Fresno*. Bulletin No. 20, Series No. 2. Berkeley: the University, 1926. 260 p. ¶ Warren, Curtis E. *An Industrial and Occupational Survey of Yuba and Sutter Counties, California*, Marysville, Calif.: Yuba County Junior College, 1931. 80 p. (Mimeo.) ¶ Benedict, Herbert W. *Canton Occupational Survey, 1938*. Canton, Ohio: Board of Education, 1938, 297 p.

The time spent in school, under the federal plan for aid, must not be less than 144 hours per year (approximately one hour a day thruout the school year).

(3) They are of the following kinds: (a) trade-extension classes, including apprenticeship; (b) trade-preparation classes; and (c) general-continuation classes.

For the last named there are three factors to be considered in the organization of the course—class instruction dealing with problems of the job, time given to work on the job, and time devoted to the academic program of the pupils. The instructional program is based primarily upon an analysis of the worker's job. Employment must be bona fide employment at a fair wage. Instructors must have had wage-earning experience and be approved and certified as teachers by the proper authorities and the methods of instruction must be such as are best adapted to the group as well as the individuals in the class. Free class discussion, demonstrations, and illustrations should take precedence over the common lecture method. (The room set aside for instruction should be equipped with tables and comfortable chairs rather than the typical classroom desks.)

Every part-time program should have the support and approval of the state educational authorities, the local school authorities, the local community, and the interested employer-employee groups. Every community contemplating a part-time program should have an advisory committee to meet in conference for purposes of planning and organizing the program. It should first determine the local needs for such a program from six months to a year in advance of launching it. Finally, a part-time program should be inaugurated only upon the request of the community, when such a request is based upon a careful analysis of local needs.

Any community wanting to investigate further the organization of part-time classes should contact the state supervisor of trade and industrial education thru the proper educational authority of the state in charge of such work.

Adult Education

A recent book on adult education includes this statement: "Hundreds of people in rural communities are anxious to secure information and to broaden their understanding. These, instead of being less capable of continued growth and mental development than city dwellers, often have more receptive attitudes toward adult education



*Why pity rural youth
When they are free
On winged words
The world to roam
Via the R. F. D.?—Anonymous.*

*Photograph by
H. Armstrong Roberts*

than persons living in congested sections. The absence of self-consciousness among rural dwellers is also a great asset. Lack of ready articulateness must not be confused with or taken necessarily to mean lack of capacity."⁷⁷

General adult training—For years schools in many parts of the country have been making their facilities available for night classes to aid the foreign-born in learning to write and speak English. Classes for teaching adults to learn to read and write, vocational opportunity schools, and discussion groups are all having a marked influence on the thinking of educational leaders. Courses in home management, sex education, family budgeting, child care, and consumer buying provide excellent subject materials which can well be discussed by adolescent and adult groups.⁷⁸ The schools should provide these opportunities for adult learning. If education is a continuous process which begins at the cradle and ends with the grave, the modern small school must make a contribution all along the line.

One illustration of a community adult education program is that of Cedar Grove, New Jersey, described by Blund:

The opening wedge we used was to offer to the men of the town an evening a week at general shop work (including metal work, cabinet-making, or furniture repair) under the direction of the industrial arts teacher, who gave his time freely for two years. At the same time, the women of the town were invited to participate in a sewing and needlework class under the tutelage of the school's domestic science teacher. This, however, was not as readily accepted by the participants and finally had to be discontinued because of lack of interest. After one year of adult education, the board of education was convinced of its value, and they were prevailed upon to offer to the community a very excellent course in metalcraft under an unusually fine craftsman and teacher. In this case, the board of education paid half of the tuition costs for all local class members, leaving the other half to be paid by the participants. This is now in its third successful year and has been as enthusiastically received by women as by men. The quality of the work turned out by beginners has been truly remarkable. Furthermore, this work has now become a home hobby on the part of at least half of those who took the course.

Another illustration of a community center is the South Orange-Maplewood Adult School. This project is sponsored by the parent-

⁷⁷ Hewitt, Dorothy, and Mather, Kirtley F. *Adult Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937, p. 33.

⁷⁸ Handbook for Leaders of Parent Education for Group in Emergency Education Programs. Advisory Committee on Emergency Education Programs of the National Council of Parent Education in cooperation with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., November 1934. ¶ Bristow, William H. "Parents' Part in the Curriculum." *Curriculum Journal* 9: 58-63; February 1938. ¶ Laws, Gertrude. "At What Point Should Home and School Meet?" *Childhood Education* 14: 149-52; December 1937.

teacher association, by the teachers association, and by several local civic groups. The facilities of a junior high-school and a senior high-school building are required to offer the ninety-two courses. Fees range from \$1 to \$10 depending upon the nature of the class work. A similar but less extensive program is also offered in this same district at the Seth Boyden Grade School. The list of activities in this program clearly indicates what might be done in many small school systems (see page 147).⁷⁹

The school is the rightful center for the discussion of the complex problems of modern society.⁸⁰ By means of public discussion groups, often led by local leaders, as well as paid forum leaders, programs for the discussion of the great social and economic problems can be conducted. In modern society there are many controversial issues which may be settled by two chief methods: one is the use of force, which has been an age-long method of attaining the objectives of the human race; the other is the peaceful method of talking things over, of arriving at a common understanding and solution based upon equity and justice. This method, in the final analysis, is the one which has been universally accepted by thinking people as the only permanent method of effecting just decisions.

Occupational training related to community resources—In the newer concept of education as a continuous process, lasting thruout life, the school should point the way toward new vocations and make use of the resources of the particular community. Thru the Smith-Hughes Act and the George-Deen Act, the general expansion of vocational education to include vocational agriculture, vocational home economics, building trades, pottery, basket-making, trowel trades, woodworking, weaving, printing, and sheet metal work has created a tremendous interest in fields hitherto untouched by most small schools. Every community possesses some unique resource which, if properly studied, will provide excellent curriculum material for the school.

⁷⁹ Maplewood, New Jersey. *Activities, 1938*. Seth Boyden Community School. (Folder.) Also the catalog, *South Orange-Maplewood Adult School, 1938-39*. South Orange, N. J.: Columbia High School, 1938. 44 p.

⁸⁰ Studebaker, J. W. *Crucial Issues in Education*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 74, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. p. 9-10. ¶ Gardner, Ella. *Development of a Leisure-Time Program in Small Cities and Towns*. Bulletin No. 241, of the Children's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. 13 p.

*Activities of the Seth Boyden**Adult Community Center School, Maplewood, N. J.*

(Monday evenings, October 3 to December 5, 1938)

Amateur Dramatics: 7:45-10:15. Sponsored by Maplewood Little Theater Group. Basic Principles of Dramatic Art; Principles and Practices; Staging; The Actor; Acquiring Poise; Correct Body Movements; Make-up; Voice and Diction; Stagecraft.

Contract Bridge: 7:45-9:30. Beginning and Advanced; under direction Mrs. George R. Paradies, Certified Culbertson Instructor.

Dancing, Tap: 7:45-8:55. Miss I. Bennett, Instructor. Art and Technic of Tap Dancing, with simple routine.

Dancing, Social: 9:05-10:15. Miss I. Bennett, Instructor. Modern Ball-room Dancing.

Frontiers of Industry: 7:45-9:00. A program of interest to everyone. Motion pictures, demonstrations, and discussions.

Glee Club: 7:45-9:30. Direction of Howard W. Baker, Musical Director of Berkeley Terrace School, Irvington, N. J. Part singing for pleasure. There will be a small additional fee for music.

Home Nursing: 7:45-9:30. Miss Flora Moore, R. N., Instructor, graduate of Orange Memorial Hospital and former Red Cross instructor. Control and prevention of diseases, demonstration of bed making, and care of patient with communicable diseases.

Home Sewing, Beginners: 7:45-8:55. Miss Eleanore Barnes, Instructor.

Home Sewing, Advanced: 9:05-10:15. A Course in Clothing, including Care and Use of Sewing Machine, Pattern and Fabric Selection, Alteration of Pattern, Dress Construction and Finishing. Will be conducted by the Singer Sewing Machine Co. (This course not connected with Beginners' Course.)

Hostess Course and Consumer Information: 7:45-9:30. Hostess Course, arranged by Public Service Gas and Electric Co., Miss Della L. Corderey, Home Economics Consultant.

Hunting: 9:05-10:15. Sponsored by Maplewood Rod and Gun Club. Discussions and Demonstrations.

Knitting and Crocheting: 9:05-10:15. Instructor to be announced.

Sketching as a Hobby: 7:45-9:30. The instructor will be a member of the South Orange-Maplewood faculty. Details at registration.

Today's Children: 9:05-10:15. Mrs. Daisy Simon Wadsworth, Former Director of Essex County Character Education. A Course in Parent Education.

Touch Typing for Beginners: 7:45-8:55. Equipment and instruction courtesy of Remington Rand, Inc. Class limited to 15.

Photography for Fun: 9:05-10:15. F. Raymond Archer of Camera Center, South Orange.

One locality may be particularly adapted to sheep raising; another section to lumbering; another may possess excellent grazing lands; another valuable minerals; while still another may have soil of great fertility. It is the duty of the school, with the help of the community leaders, to expand into the life of the community and it is the duty of the community to make use of the school as an agency for vocational development. By means of local school and community leadership there may be established such worthwhile projects as basket-making, wool-carding and weaving, projects for the development of better farming procedures, vocational agricultural projects carried on by boys and girls in the community, and development of trade education in such fields as pottery-making, trowel trades, printing, cabinet-making, and many others.

As an example of what is being done along this line may be cited the pottery class at Blacksville, a rural community of about five hundred people in the western end of Monongalia County, West Virginia.

The pottery class was organized as a part-time class under the Smith-Hughes Act. In one sense our class is rather unique when compared with others of the state. Our plan is to embrace only such projects as will utilize, as far as is expedient, the raw materials found in the local community. With an abundance of excellent clays in this vicinity, our work has grown into activities which draw from other sections only the materials used in grinding and mixing the various glazes. Furthermore, one of our local teachers, . . . who is a native of Clay district, was selected to design the pottery-arts shop and to instruct the pottery class. There is little, therefore, about the entire project that is not local. Students taking the pottery course learn the complete process. Their work takes them thru the following steps: (1) the digging of the clay from the earth; (2) preparing the clay (little of our clay needs screening or straining but is used as it is taken from the vein); (3) the designing of shapes; (4) the building or throwing of shapes, both of which are hand operations; (5) applying handles or spouts; (6) firing the bisque ware; (7) regulating kiln heats and drafts; (8) computing and grinding glazes; (9) glazing and firing the glost kiln; and (10) caring for the various materials.

Some excellent talent has also been discovered in modeling. The ability acquired by some in the class is worthy of commercialization for supplementing the regular income. Dean L. Ricketts, of Charleston, West Virginia, who visited our class said, "The entire staff of school officials in Monongalia County deserves the congratulations and support of all who believe in promoting other types of work that will rehabilitate people for private employment."

To date we have had more than three hundred visitors in our plant from places as distant as California, New York, and Texas.⁸¹

⁸¹ Cox, Floyd B. "An Experiment in Continued Learning." *Elementary School Journal* 38: 321-23; January 1938.

Such community projects may lead to the establishment of small industries, and both students and adults will be making a contribution of lasting economic benefit to their respective districts. In working out a curriculum based upon the normal activities as well as the potential activities of small communities, new life blood will be instilled into the arteries of business and community enterprise. Schools will take on new life and a sense of community solidarity will result. The classes in the small school can wisely make a study of the community resources and trades. These surveys could show the extent of resources, with the income derived from each, possibilities of expansion, and potential resources not under development.⁸²

No true community center can be built with one-way cooperation. Where the school is merely calling for contributions from the community, many adults are likely to become irritated. Also, the ability of the school to progress depends largely upon the educational development of the adult members who furnish the environmental influences outside of school hours. A true community center must be responsible for the continuous development of all the members of that community. A complete program of adult education is needed for the following purposes: (a) to keep pace with changing occupations; (b) to keep up to date in present occupations—skills and knowledge become obsolete in time; (c) to combat the evils of specialization and reawaken buried talents; (d) to provide for wise use of leisure; and (e) to build an enlightened society and an ennobling civilization to combat propaganda and develop democracy.⁸³

⁸² For other suggestions consult: Lewis, Charles D., *op. cit.*, p. 329.

⁸³ Minnesota State Department of Education. *Learning in Leisure; the What and Why of Adult Education*. Social Science Series No. 4. St. Paul: the Department, 1937. 85 p.

CHAPTER VII

Curriculum Enrichment thru Instructional and Administrative Organization

IN CARRYING into effect the broadened curriculum suggested in the previous chapter, certain instructional and administrative reorganizations may be necessary. Examples of possible changes are the following: (a) redistributing the time allotted to subjects, (b) regrouping subjects into larger areas of study, (c) shifting the teaching in a given area from group to individual study, (d) changing the primary source of direction from the classroom teacher to supervised correspondence study, or (e) broadening the financial support of a phase of work thru cooperation between districts. These are problems to be worked out locally. The important thing to keep in mind is the ultimate goal—to bring a broader program of experiences to the individual child. The particular combination of instructional and administrative procedures should be subordinate to this goal. It is with this thought in mind that the present chapter reviews a number of ways in which improvements may be made in many local situations. None of these suggestions are panaceas; all can be improved and adapted to small school systems.

Continuity of Curriculum Aims and Program

As early as 1899 John Dewey pointed out the lack of articulation between the units of the public school systems of the United States. He said: "All organization is nothing but getting things into connection with one another, so that they work easily, flexibly, and fully. Therefore, in speaking of this question of waste in education, I desire to call your attention to the isolation of the various parts of the school system, to the lack of coherence in its studies and methods."¹

In many school systems today there continues to exist a lack of coherence in studies and methods. Sometimes courses of study are revised at the elementary level without proper consideration of the functions of secondary education. High-school curriculum plans often fail to build upon the experiences of the earlier school years. In the

¹ Dewey, John. *The School and Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1900. p. 60.

opinion of nearly six hundred competent observers the chief inarticulations of the public schools are as follows:

(1) Schools too often fail to evaluate the success or failure of their methods, practices, and procedures in terms of their effect upon the individual student rather than in terms of their effect upon the group.

(2) Too many teachers fail to bring to their position an adequate knowledge of the laws of child growth and child psychology.

(3) The school fails at all levels to free itself from certain practices and procedures which are wholly traditional as to origin.

(4) Schools often fail to emphasize creative, self-expressive activity more than the mastery of routine, academic material.

(5) The school often fails to discover and to measure adequately capacities and abilities as a basis for discovering and meeting individual needs and differences.²

These inarticulations obviously call for both instructional and administrative adjustment. In fact, there is a need for continuous efforts to prevent these difficulties by reminding ourselves of the purposes of elementary and secondary schools. Many statements of these basic objectives may be found.³ Those set forth by the Commission on Articulation are as follows:

Elementary Education

(1) Advance the child, altho by no means perfect him, in his ability to read, write, and speak correctly the English language, and to know and to use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic.

(2) Advance the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical and mental health and well-being and to appreciate the meaning of life and of nature.

(3) Advance the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and history of his own community, state, and nation, and of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of such a democracy as ours, and to meet to the full the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender, to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life.

(4) Advance the child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts thru the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the household arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter.⁴

² Adapted from the list included in *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, Ninth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1931, p. 399-400.

³ For example: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Sixth Yearbook, 1928, p. 38. ¶ Briggs, Thomas H. *The Junior High School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. p. 20-28.

⁴ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Articulation of the Units of American Education*. Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1929. p. 84-85.

Secondary Education

(1) To continue the integration of students until the desired common knowledge, appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and abilities are firmly fixed.

(2) To satisfy the important immediate and probable future needs of students so far as adolescent maturity permits.

(3) To reveal higher activities of an increasingly specialized type in the major fields of the racial experience and culture.

(4) To explore higher and increasingly specialized levels of interests, aptitudes, and capacities.

(5) To systematize the knowledge acquired.

(6) To establish and develop in all fields of knowledge interests leading to continued education.

(7) To guide students into advanced study or vocation in which they are most likely to be successful and happy.

(8) To begin and gradually to increase differentiated education on the evidence of interests, aptitudes, and capacities.

(9) To use methods that demand independent thought, involve the elementary principles of research, and provide self-directed practice.

(10) To retain each student until the law of diminishing returns begins to operate or until he is ready for more independent study in other institutions.⁵

Summarizing, the curriculum should be a program that will help the child to find his interests, capacities, and attitudes, and will record them so that they can be passed on from the kindergarten teacher to the first grade, and then thru the elementary school into the junior and senior high schools, finally being made available to industry when needed. If such a program is to be followed, it means that teachers will guide and teach pupils not subjects, for, as stated in *The Changing Curriculum*, "there is apparently a growing recognition of the fact that guidance and instruction are inseparable complementary parts of the teaching process and, consequently, that every teacher must be a counselor and guide as well as an instructor to his pupils."⁶

Enriching the Experiences of Individuals

Numerous procedures have been developed to enrich the curriculum experiences of individual pupils. Some of these are almost exclusively administrative measures; other plans emphasize changes in

⁵ Adapted from a statement by Thomas H. Briggs in *The Articulation of the Units of American Education*, Seventh Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1929, p. 196-207.

⁶ Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study. *The Changing Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. p. 15.

the nature and organization of the content. The following section treats several procedures which have been effective in small school systems.⁷

Combination of Classes

The term "combination of classes" as used in this section means the placing together during one period under one teacher of pupils who are registered for two or more distinct subjects. If the period is sixty minutes long and only two subject groups are meeting together, the teacher can average thirty minutes with each; if there are three class groups, twenty minutes with each. In view of the fact that the pupil can pretty largely direct his own progress if he has self-teaching materials, the amount of time given by the teacher need not be as great in that the necessity for making assignments, hearing recitations, and preparing and grading tests no longer exists. Teachers are free, just as when individualized elementary materials are used, to give individual help where necessary, to provide supplementary enriching materials, and in other ways to fulfil their function as truly creative teachers of individual boys and girls.

The amount of time given to a class of small enrolment can well be less than a full period, not only because the materials are individualized, but also because small numbers require less time. It may be assumed for all practical purposes that when the work is individualized, the amount of time the teacher spends with each class group may be in proportion to the number of students enrolled in that class. This relationship, of course, cannot maintain if regular group methods of teaching are employed.

Altho, theoretically, combination of classes could be carried to the point where there are as many subjects represented in a group as there are pupils enrolled, there are practical limitations which come into operation long before that point is reached. The teacher, for example, should not instruct any class groups by this method, no matter how small the enrolment may be, unless he is qualified in each of the subjects represented. Few instructors are qualified in more than three general fields and some in only one or two. Of course, within a general field, there can be a great deal of specialization. An instructor, for example, who holds a major in mathematics might bring to

⁷ For detailed treatment of a number of these procedures consult *Enriched Curriculum for Small Schools* by K. O. Broady, University of Nebraska, Teachers College, Lincoln, Nebr., 1936, p. 24-71.
¶ Soper, Wayne W. *The Small High School*. University of the State of New York Bulletin 1071. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1935. p. 30-34.

gether pupils during one period in as many as four or more mathematics classes. Also someone who is well prepared in the mechanical arts could have pupils working in a shop at a dozen or more different types of activities. In some schools the limit of usefulness of combination of classes is soon reached; in other schools combination may be carried to the point where curriculum offerings could be doubled or trebled.⁸

Alternation of Subjects

Advocates of the practice of alternating subjects believe that it has many possibilities.⁹ It is commonly used by high schools enrolling fewer than one hundred students.¹⁰ Soper suggests five fundamental principles in the alternation of subjects:

- (1) The program of alternation should involve a large unit, preferably a state, and must be practical for every school within the unit.
- (2) It must work equally well for one-year, two-year, three-year, or four-year high schools.
- (3) It must be adaptable to changing needs within any given school, and, when once adopted, continue to function over a period of years.
- (4) No combination of classes should be made in which one course is alternated with another to which it is a prerequisite.
- (5) Only students classified in the same or adjacent years should be combined into the same group.¹¹

Table 5 illustrates what an individualization plan combined with alternation and merging of subjects will do for a teacher who has three grades at the elementary-school level. It will be seen that the number of class meetings per day has been reduced to fourteen from a theoretical maximum of forty-eight. If there are 330 teaching minutes in the day, an average of slightly less than seven minutes per day per class will be available under the old plan and almost twenty-

⁸ An interesting curriculum plan for rotating subjectmatter in the intermediate and upper grades has been developed experimentally for small school systems by Fannie W. Dunn and Effie G. Bathurst. The five mimeographed volumes in the series are entitled: (1) *How the World Gets Food*; (2) *Homes, Early Times and Now*; (3) *Agriculture in World Civilization*; (4) *Our Changing World*; and (5) *Guide and General Outline*. Copies of the books can be purchased from Teachers College, Columbia University, while the supply lasts. Other copies may be consulted at the following places: State Teachers College, Tempe, Arizona; State Normal School, Brockport, New York; State Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois; State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado; Department of Public Instruction, Chattanooga, Tennessee; and State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina.

⁹ Bell, M. D. "Plans for Securing an Enriched Curriculum for the Small High Schools of Nebraska by More Complete Alternation of Subjects." *Educational Research Record* 3: 171-75; April 1931. ¶ Branigan, John. "How Can the Number of Different Subjects Handled Be Limited to the Fields in Which Teachers Are Specifically Trained?" *California Quarterly of Secondary Education* 6: 386-87; June 1931. ¶ Williamson, I. L. "Problems of the Small High School." *Utah Educational Review* 18:331; April 1925.

¹⁰ Clem, Orlie M., and Derby, Orla L. "Are Curriculum Practices of Small High Schools Practical?" *Nation's Schools* 13: 39-42; March 1934.

¹¹ Soper, Wayne W., *op. cit.*, p. 31.

five minutes per day per class under the new plan. Since some subjects require less than twenty-five minutes daily, there obviously is ample teaching time for the whole program.

TABLE 5.—POSSIBLE REDUCTION IN THE NUMBER OF CLASSES RECITING IN AN ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM ENROLLING GRADES IV, V, AND VI

Subject	Classes before modification	Reciting daily after modification	Basis for change
Arithmetic	3	2	Combination of grades by alternation and individualization, Grade IV reciting alone and Grades V and VI together.
Reading	3	2	"
Grammar	3	"
Composition	3	2	Also merging of grammar and composition into English.
Writing	3	1	Combination of grades by individualization.
Spelling	3	1	"
Geography	3	2	Merging of geography, history, and civics into social science; combination of Grades IV and V by alternation.
History	3	
Civics	3	
Physical education	3	1	Combination of grades by group participation and by individualization.
Music	3	For health and for music, combination of grades by group participation and individualization; for art, combination of grades by individualization; alternations of the three subjects as follows: music, 2 days a week; art, 2 days a week; health, 1 day a week.
Health	3	
Art	3	1	
Nature study	3	2	In nature study, combination of grades by alternation, Grade IV reciting alone and Grades V and VI together; in homemaking, combination of grades by group participation; in manual arts, combination of grades by individualization. Homemaking is offered three days a week and fifth- and sixth-grade nature study two days a week; in a similar way manual arts is alternated by days in the week with fourth-grade nature study.
Homemaking (girls)	3	
Manual arts (boys)	3	
Total classes	48	14	

Source: Broady, K. O. *Enriched Curriculums for Small Schools*. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1936. p. 29.

Individualization ¹²

If individualization is to be fully successful, the textbook or textbooks used must be supplemented by materials which make the textbook largely self-teaching, self-motivating, and self-testing. The textbook itself may be of such a nature as those written for use in the tool subjects by Washburne and his staff.¹³ The assignments made should also facilitate the adapting of the program to individual differences by indicating minimum subjectmatter content for those of lesser ability and enriching activities for those who can do more than the normal amount of work. If every pupil in the room has in his hands these self-directing materials that are supplementary to the textbook, or a part of it, the teacher is freed from the necessity of making assignments every day, preparing, giving, and scoring all the tests, or laying the background for the work that is to be done. He can become an individual counselor and helper to be called upon whenever difficulties arise. Thus there may be developed in the pupil a purposeful outlook upon life, a proper emotional stability, and a feeling that the school is helpfully concerned with the whole of his life, not just the academic side of it. Moreover, the subjectmatter itself may be more effectively adapted to the wide and varying range of individual abilities and interests of the boys and girls because of the smaller number under the teacher's care.

Experience of schools that are using individualized materials indicates that the superiority of these materials is most clearly demonstrated in the skill or tool subjects: arithmetic, spelling, writing, reading, grammar, and art. Not all the subjectmatter in these fields should be individualized, nor should all the subjectmatter of the so-called content subjects be taught by group methods. Generally speaking, tho, group instructional technics are preferable for the content subjects and the individual method for the skill subjects.

Supervised Correspondence Study ¹⁴

Altho correspondence as a medium of instruction has been used successfully on a large scale for more than two-score years, it was

¹² For a brief summary of the history of individualization of instruction see: Courtis, S. A. "Contributions of Research to the Individualization of Instruction." *The Scientific Movement in Education*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938. Chapter 17, p. 201-10.

¹³ See for example: Washburne, Carleton W., and others. *Washburne Individual Arithmetic*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co. 12 books.

¹⁴ This section was prepared with the assistance of Knute O. Broady, professor of school administration, and Earl T. Platt, assistant director in charge of supervised correspondence study, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.

not until 1923, according to available records, that any attempt was made in this country to use correspondence courses and correspondence teaching to supplement the offerings of organized high schools. It has been only in the past ten years that research and the application of sound pedagogical technics have been systematically employed in the improvement of correspondence course construction, correspondence teaching methods, and administrative practices in correspondence centers.¹⁵ The possibilities for using this agency on the adult and elementary levels have also been explored and found unusually promising. It can be expected, therefore, that the future use of this relatively new educational tool will be extensive on all levels where it is not possible to supply regular classroom instruction under trained teachers.

Services—Altho supervised correspondence study has services to render in schools of all sizes, its greatest use will be in the schools of small and rural communities. It is thru this instructional technic that the small school can now have many of the advantages that, until recently, were available only to large schools.¹⁶ The services¹⁷ that can be rendered by means of supervised correspondence study may be grouped in three divisions as follows:

First, thru it can be achieved the enrichment of the curriculum of the high school by increasing the number of subjects available, and thus (a) providing subjects of greatest value to gifted youth; (b) similarly meeting the needs of slow, uninterested, and retarded pupils, and those whose attendance is irregular; and (c) providing general vocational and avocational training in harmony with disclosed interests and needs.

Second, thru it the area served by the school can be expanded by providing (a) worthwhile courses for postgraduates and adults; (b) college courses for students who at the time cannot attend a regularly organized institution of higher learning; (c) organized and well-supervised courses for incapacitated pupils who cannot attend school; (d) similar assistance for other types of out-of-school pupils; (e) an opportunity for a full program of subjects in one-, two-, and three-year high schools; and (f) a means of carrying on summer school without the necessity of organizing classes.

¹⁵ The source of correspondence instructional materials and instructional services is usually a university extension division or a private correspondence school.

¹⁶ Haight, R. C. "Nine Hundred and Ninety-nine Square Miles and Seventy-nine Pupils." *Phi Delta Kappan* 19: 243-45, 253; April 1937.

¹⁷ For a complete treatment of these services, see either of the following: Platt, Earl T. "Curricular Enrichment through Extension." *Proceedings of the Third Annual All-State Educational Conference*. Educational Monographs, No. 9. Lincoln, Nebr.: Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1936. p. 29-44. ¶ Platt, Earl T. "Vitalizing the Program of the Small High School." *Bulletin* 20: 70-82; March 1936. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association (Sec.: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Ave.).

Third, supervised correspondence study is one important means of reducing the lag between the need for curriculum revision and its actual accomplishment. The highly individualized materials used in supervised correspondence study courses make available in small high schools curriculum offerings that otherwise would be impossible. The additions and transformations in the school's activities made possible by these courses, which, by the way, are kept constantly up to date and which embody the best in method and content, vitalize the program in spite of vested interests, custom, and tradition that defend the status quo and fight bitterly any change which disturbs in the least the old subjects taught.

Operation—The operation of supervised correspondence study is relatively simple and is much the same for most high schools:

(a) *The proper course for each student must be selected.* Careful guidance is fundamental in securing the best results from supervised correspondence study. A correspondence course should never be "just another course" for a student, but should be "just the course" for the student. The school administrator should always be able to say that each correspondence study registrant can secure more value from the correspondence course chosen than from any course available to him in school.

(b) *The student must be registered.* After deciding that a pupil should take a certain correspondence course, the proper school officer makes out a registration form and mails it to the correspondence center. This form, besides carrying the name of the enrollee, the school, and the course, carries also the name of the teacher who has been assigned supervisory duties. The form may carry agreements made by the local school regarding payment for the course and for the acceptance of credit toward graduation. Frequently such a form will provide for entering the date of the close of the semester, the pupil's reason for registering, or other information that will help the center serve individual pupils.

(c) *Equipment, textbooks, and supplies must be secured.* If equipment and textbooks are not already available in the school, they can usually be ordered from the correspondence center and obtained at the same time that the correspondence course and the supplies are received. Many correspondence centers furnish all mailing supplies as a part of their service. Some centers go so far as to furnish folder file pockets or other devices in which the local supervisor is expected to keep returned papers.

(d) *A place for study must be provided.* Each correspondence student must be assigned a place where he can do his work. This place should be available to him each school day at a designated time. The generally accepted criteria set up for lighting, ventilation, space, opportunity to work undisturbed, etc., should be met, for each subject pursued. Equipment for these rooms is being acquired by various means. Some is constructed by students or salvaged from dismantled machinery and shops. Governmental agencies and special industries interested in the vocational aspects of the program sometimes present schools with equipment to be used in such work. Even tho some of the equipment must be purchased from regular supply sources, the additional cost of setting up a supervised corre-

spendence laboratory should not be great during any one year, since equipment will be added only as students become interested in and register for new courses. Since supervised correspondence study is individualized learning, laboratory supplies in most cases can be used by a different student each period.

Possibly the best, as well as the most economical, method of providing a laboratory for registrants in vocational courses is to arrange with businessmen in the community to have the students do their laboratory work in the store, shop, or factory, and on the farm—reserving a place for the study of the theoretical aspects of the vocation in the school. This is not only a practical means by which the small school may handle many vocational courses, but it is proving to be a splendid way of bringing the school and the community closer together.

(e) *A supervisor must be appointed.* In a small school it may be that the number of students needing correspondence instruction is very few; hence the correspondence student or students can be assigned to a study hall or assembly room teacher for supervision. In schools where there are enough correspondence students to make a sizable class, one of the teachers may be assigned for a full period or even for several periods to supervise all the students carrying correspondence courses. Some schools have found that under favorable conditions a teacher can quite easily supervise as many as seventy-five students at one time.

The duties of the supervisor¹⁸ in a small school are neither extensive nor difficult to perform. They consist, in the main, in seeing that the pupil has ready access to the materials of study, that he works systematically under conditions that are favorable to study, and that he is helped over any difficulties that he meets which he cannot solve himself. Ordinarily the supervisor is expected to distribute all materials to the pupil as they become available to him, to administer all tests, and to collect and mail to the correspondence center all the pupil's work that is to be sent in. Only infrequently does the teacher at the correspondence center call upon a supervisor for some special duty or service.

Introduction of supervised correspondence study—Any phase of a school program should have the full approval of the board of education, the faculty, the patrons, and the students. Since supervised correspondence study as a method of learning is relatively new and since correspondence study as such has been frequently frowned upon by those who have not realized or understood its importance, the administrator would do well to move cautiously when inaugurating this work.

It has been demonstrated in many cases that a gradual introduction of supervised correspondence study rather than an extensive program at the outset presents fewer difficulties and leads to a quicker recognition of the worth of the technic. If the work is gradually introduced,

¹⁸An extensive list of specific qualifications for the supervisor and his duties is given in *Supervised Correspondence Study*, Bulletin No. 116. Lincoln, Nebr.: Extension Division, University of Nebraska. p. 25-30.

the administrator in the school, as well as the supervisor, can watch its development closely and by careful study can determine the direction the program should take in order to serve the best interests of the school.

One might go so far as to recommend that only one or two of the many purposes that supervised correspondence study can serve should be taken advantage of the first year. A corollary recommendation would be that there should be registered only a very small group of pupils for the first two or three semesters. A final suggestion would be that the pupils who make up these first few groups should be carefully selected. They should be pupils who the administrator knows will benefit from the correspondence work, who are anxious to take the correspondence subjects, and who have the ability and determination to carry the courses thru to a successful conclusion. Supervised correspondence study succeeds about as well as classroom instruction. The poor student who would fail in the classroom will most likely do poorly¹⁹ in the same subject thru supervised correspondence study. The student who does average classroom work will do average work thru supervised correspondence study, and the student who does superior work in the classroom will do superior work thru supervised correspondence study. If a poor student should fail to complete a correspondence course during the first year that supervised correspondence study work is offered, the tendency would be for the pupil to blame supervised correspondence study and there would always be those who would agree with him. However, let several superior pupils complete a course or several courses thru supervised correspondence study, let the skeptical see that as a medium of instruction it can succeed with the superior student to the same degree that classroom instruction succeeds with the same type of pupil, then if a poor student fails to complete a course, the result will not be unfair blame for the teaching method but rather willingness to understand it better and to recognize its limitations as well as advantages.

A superintendent who opens the services of supervised correspondence study to his pupils and to his community in the gradual and careful manner suggested here will seldom need to defend what-

¹⁹ Few students need *fail to pass* a supervised correspondence study course. Since the instruction in such a course is always completely individualized, the pupil can continue to work on a section of the course until it is mastered. There is, however, much more hope for the slow student when he is taking a course by correspondence than when he is receiving his instruction in a regular class, since in the former case he is working under special guidance. He can also work at his own rate and can select a subject for which he has special interest and adequate aptitude.

ever ultimate program of supervised correspondence study he develops, for it will have proved itself to faculty, to students, and to patrons. He will need to keep in mind, however, that supervised correspondence study "is not to be construed as a panacea for secondary educational ills and that the scheme will not work automatically."²⁰

Library Services

Few pupils enrolled in the small schools have access to public libraries.²¹ For that reason every effort should be made to enlarge and enrich the public school library.²² The library is the heart of the school. It, after the pupil and teacher, has been ranked by competent authorities as most important in the education of the child.²³ The library is one of the most important parts of the public school; it is helpful in creating interests and supplying happy contacts. It is here that one can become acquainted, thru the use of newspapers, magazines, books, pamphlets, picture collections, globes, maps, charts, and other visual aids, with the progress which the world has made as well as with the current happenings of the day.

Satisfactory instruction of the pupil today can no longer be confined to a single textbook; the efficient teacher guides his pupils so they will consult a number of authorities or references. Thus they are taught to weigh the information presented in one book with that presented in another, in that way learning to evaluate and test information for accuracy. Teaching of this kind is the basic foundation of efficient thinking, which is the purpose of modern education. It is in keeping with the modern philosophy of education which elevates the library to a position of supreme importance. The use of the library by the children of the school is an accurate criterion of the school's educational progress.

Not only is the library the indispensable tool of modern instructional procedure, but its habitual use determines the cultural level a human being will main-

²⁰ Minnesota State Department of Education. *Manual for Graded Elementary and Secondary Schools*. St. Paul: the Department, 1935. p. 22. ¶ For other points of view on supervised correspondence study, see: Ade, Lester K. *Directed Correspondence Study*. Bulletin No. 291. Harrisburg, Pa.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1938. 79 p. ¶ Conference on Supervised Correspondence Study. *Report*. August 1934 Conference at Teachers College, Columbia University. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1934. 66 p.

²¹ For detailed treatment of the library situation consult: Wilson, Louis R. *The Geography of Reading*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. 481 p. ¶ Joeckel, Carlton B. *Library Service*. Advisory Committee on Education. Staff Study No. 11. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. Chapter 2, "Libraries in the States and Local Units," p. 5-32.

²² Lewis, Charles D. *The Rural Community and Its Schools*. New York: American Book Co., 1937. p. 221.

²³ Banks, Charles. *Yearbook of University City Public Schools*. University City, Mo., 1937. p. 120.

tain in adult life. The library is the most powerful influence in promoting the ideal of education as a process which begins at birth and continues thruout life both in and out of school.²⁴

The Budget and Means of Providing Material

A definite amount should be included in the annual school budget for library purposes. For each pupil enrolled the American Library Association suggests about a dollar for the purchase of books, an additional amount to be provided for periodicals and library supplies. In some states where traveling libraries are available from the state department of education, the local library can be supplemented at little expense, usually the cost of transportation.

State and local governments, commercial and non-commercial firms, and lay organizations are sources of free or inexpensive pamphlet material often overlooked. Much of this material can be used effectively. A section in Bulletin No. 2 prepared by the Mississippi State Department of Education²⁵ includes a catalog of such material for the purpose of assisting teachers in using these sources. Bulletins of state library agencies, and publications of the American Library Association and the federal Office of Education, Washington, D. C., also include lists of such material.

The library can also be supplemented by books and periodicals from the community. A canvass of a small community revealed more than fifty current periodicals, many books, and a number of newspapers to be available. When proper cooperation is established with the community, the patrons of the school are happy to lend these materials to the school. Any material that is brought in from the community should be returned promptly or on call. Moreover, both pupils and staff members should be trained to take care of borrowed materials so that they can be returned in as good condition as when received. The use of covers is a splendid aid in keeping books and magazines in good condition.

Personnel

One member of every school staff should be trained in library science. Upon this person should be placed the responsibility of caring

²⁴ California State Curriculum Commission. *Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1936. p. 63.

²⁵ Mississippi State Department of Education. *Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction*. Bulletin No. 2. Jackson: the Department, 1935. p. 165-215. ¶ Smith, Homer J. *Teaching Aids for the Asking*. Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota Press, 1928. 60 p. ¶ Graham, Mae. "The School Libraries Section." *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians* 12: 394-96, 399; February 1938. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. (950-72 University Ave.).

for the library in keeping with generally accepted library technic, and of recommending the books to be purchased. Before making recommendations, however, the librarian should first take into account the books already available in the library and then confer with the other members of the teaching staff so as to bring about a proper balance of the materials needed in the various fields in that particular school and community. The librarian will also guide, teach, and encourage the pupils of the various grades to use to the best advantage the books available. She will formulate a program that will publicize the library. In this connection, some schools are using effectively for publicity purposes bulletin boards, school papers, advertising books, maps, cartoons, picture shows, peep shows, puppet shows, reading clubs, assembly programs, announcements, and local newspapers.²⁶ The librarian in cooperation with the administration should plan to keep the library open the entire school day and for some time before and after school.

Many schools without a full-time librarian have found it possible to keep the library open by training responsible, interested pupil assistants. It is the responsibility of these assistants to issue books, aid pupils who need help in looking up references, mend books, and see that a library atmosphere is maintained during the time they are in charge. Usually the members of the student body are happy to cooperate with the pupil librarians so that they may have access to the library any time of the day they are not in class. In some schools the pupil library assistants have formed a club and developed standards which a pupil who wishes to become a member of the club must be able to meet. A pupil will usually need to spend a considerable amount of time working in the library before he has gained sufficient skill and knowledge about it to be admitted to the club.

Adaptation to School Levels²⁷

Each of the elementary grades should have a definite time to use the library. The elementary teachers should have the privilege of drawing out a number of books, as well as appropriate reference material for instruction, suitable for their grades to be taken to the grade homeroom for use during the school day. They should be charged

²⁶ California State Curriculum Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 311-16.

²⁷ *Rural School Libraries*, published by the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, February 1936, is an excellent reference that covers a broad field of library information. *The Library in the Elementary School*, California State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 18, 1935, contains detailed library information for the elementary schools.

with the responsibility of encouraging outside leisure reading and should guide the outside reading of their pupils into various fields, such as fiction, social studies, science, biography and autobiography, hero stories, travel, and art, music, and poetry. They should encourage every pupil to keep an individual record of his or her outside reading and should pass that record on to the next teacher.²⁸ This method will enable the new teacher to continue the guidance begun by the previous teacher and will provide an added record to help find the pupil's interests. A complete record of a pupil's outside reading in the elementary grades will be an added guidance help in the secondary school.

The library in the secondary school should serve as the center for enrichment and vitalization of the program; it should provide for the avocational interests of pupils and teachers, stimulate the acquisition of independent habits of study, and make provision for valuable exploratory experiences.²⁹

In the secondary school the members of the staff should have available an abundance of reference material for their respective classes. They should be encouraged to draw out of the library the references that are needed during the instructional periods of the day and to take them to their own classrooms for use in directing the learning of the various members of the class. Each pupil of the secondary school should have access at all times to all the materials included in the library and should be taught how to use those materials effectively.

Non-School Sources of Help

In the small school system, the school library, which should serve the community since there is often no public library available, should take advantage of non-school sources by cooperating with parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, women's clubs, book-of-the-month clubs, and other organizations in the community. It should thereby also lead the way to a get-acquainted program, which might begin with local interests and later be broadened to state and national interests. Helps for teachers may be obtained by sending a postal card to the Office of Education, Washington, D. C., asking

²⁸ California State Curriculum Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 62-63. ¶ Allen, C. F.; Alexander, T. R.; and Means, H. W. *Extra-Curricular Activities in the Elementary Schools*. St. Louis, Mo.: Webster Publishing Co., 1937. p. 119. ¶ Additional information may be obtained from the Library Divisions in the State Departments of Education of West Virginia and Missouri.

²⁹ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Rural School Libraries*. Bulletin 1936. Washington, D. C.: the Association, February 1936. 111 p. ¶ Ohio State Department of Education. *Ohio High School Standards, 1937*. Columbus: the Department, 1937. p. 51.

for material on forums, and to the American Library Association, Chicago, asking for material on community library use. The progress that can be made in community library use depends largely on the librarian, the people in the community, and the type of material available.

Schools and communities with limited facilities can supplement those facilities by using the traveling libraries and package service maintained by state agencies—usually the state department of education.³⁰ Thru the traveling libraries, generally available for the cost of transporting the books or materials, it is possible to get collections of books for general reading. Thru the package service there may be obtained for reference work and for study clubs, books, pictures, maps, pamphlets, and articles from magazines and newspapers. When it is desired to make use of the traveling library or package service, the request should be made in ample time to allow for delays in filling the order, should indicate clearly the type of books or materials needed, and should be signed by the librarian, principal, or teacher.

Books borrowed from the state agency and found fruitful and attractive in informational and recreational reading should be added to the school library at an early date. Repeated borrowing of vital books needed all the year round is a waste of time and funds. Expensive books, those needed by a few persons, books for infrequent use and special occasions, should be borrowed.³¹

As the demand for library service increases (as it should), it is quite evident that some larger cooperative plan, such as the county or regional library system, will come into existence. In many instances such a plan has already been adopted. In the Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, the following answer was given to the question as to how the library needs of our rural schools should be met: "There seems to be just one answer—the county library. So general has been the adoption of this plan that almost every state in the Union has passed some type of county library law."³²

The county library system is a public and school library system for the entire county, maintained by the entire county. It usually operates from headquarters in the county seat, from which books

³⁰ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Elementary School Libraries*. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1933. p. 385-89.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 388-89.

³² National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *op. cit.*, p. 385.

are supplied to all the people in the county. In Pennsylvania, "branches are also maintained in post offices, stores, and community buildings, and in grange halls and residences of adult readers. It is a library of county people, by county people, and for county people. It is established by action of county authorities and supported by county appropriations, and is under the direction of the county library board. The county librarian, chosen by the county library board, administers the library in consultation with the board and the county superintendent of schools."³³ In its best form of development, the county library system may be the answer to several urgent problems of the small school library. The claims made for the plan are that broader and better services are made available to all the people in the county at less expense and under better trained leadership. Fargo, in the pamphlet *The Superintendent Makes a Discovery*,³⁴ has prepared a catechism that will answer a great number of questions about the county library plan.

The type and value of services available under the county library plan are many. The distinctive features of the California county free library services to schools are given below as an illustration:

- (1) A central school library department in each of the forty-six county libraries.
- (2) A county librarian to supervise the school libraries.
- (3) A librarian as head of the school library department with one or more assistants if the county is a large one.
- (4) Circulation of books to the schools by the county library in place of the stagnation caused by inactive school district libraries.
- (5) A specialized library service to meet classroom needs.
- (6) The supplementary books required by the school manual are purchased and circulated by the county librarian.
- (7) Schools are equipped with reference books approved by the county board of education.
- (8) Home reading is supplied to the children.
- (9) County librarians subscribe for magazines for the pupils and a professional magazine for the teacher.
- (10) The rapidly growing picture collections of the county libraries are a source of much help to the schools.
- (11) Stereographs to correlate with school subjects bring vividly before the children places, people, customs, industries, and other items of world-wide interest.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 386.

³⁴ Fargo, Lucile F. *The Superintendent Makes a Discovery*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1931. p. 24-31.

- (12) Music records are circulated the same as books; consequently, the school victrola remains a good investment rather than an unused article of furniture.
- (13) Cleaning and repairing school books is an arduous task performed for the schools by the county librarians.
- (14) Books, too soiled to clean or too dilapidated to repair, are destroyed by the county librarians.
- (15) County librarians go to the schools if it is possible to do so.
- (16) Teachers visit the school department of the county library and become acquainted with its resources.
- (17) To people familiar with the work being done by California county libraries for the schools it means not only an almost unbelievable number of books sent to schools but a quality of service that only a professionally-trained librarian can give.
- (18) Varied library resources are placed at the command of teachers and pupils.
- (19) Rural children learn both the present and future value of public libraries.
- (20) To everyone concerned it is a large return in both tangible and intangible things for a small financial investment.³⁵

Audio-Visual Education ³⁶

Every small school system should make the widest use of auditory and visual aids as modern means of learning. These are vital factors in progressive education. Practically every subject and activity in the whole field of education can be enriched and made more concrete and meaningful thru well-planned illustrative materials which appeal to both ear and eye.

The media for such work are unlimited. They include pictorial materials such as attractive pictures, post cards, photos, cartoons, travel folders, posters, maps, illustrations, and graphs—all properly mounted and filed; art objects, models, and nature specimens; temporary and permanent exhibits of fine and industrial arts and appropriate wall pictures for the various classrooms (in this connection the advisability of recognizing the work of local talent should be emphasized); materials for dramatization and pageants; stereop-

³⁵ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *Elementary School Libraries*. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1933. p. 379-80.

³⁶ This section was prepared with the assistance of Edgar Dale, College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. ¶ Adapted from the *Manual for Graded Elementary and Secondary Schools*, Minnesota State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn., 1935, p. 37. ¶ See also: Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, *Auditory Aids in the Classroom*. New York: the Committee (41 E. 42nd St.), 1938. 66 p. ¶ Brown, H. E., and Bird, Joy. *Motion Pictures and Lantern Slides for Elementary Visual Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. 105 p. ¶ Knox, Rose B. *School Activities and Equipment*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. 386 p. ¶ Koon, Cline M. *School Use of Visual Aids*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin, 1938, No. 4. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938. 68 p.

ticons and stereoscopes with slides and pictures carefully selected; collections of mineral resources, particularly of those with which a local community is endowed; aquaria; reference materials; moving-picture projectors and films as a mechanical means of teaching, with special attention to the type of equipment purchased, the planning of film service, and the selection of pictures; and phonographs and records and the use of the radio for educational purposes. Descriptions of how to obtain and how to use many audio-visual aids are to be found in *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School* and *Visual Aids in the Schools*.³⁷ Lists of films on safety and sources of aids in this field are given in the November 1938 *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association.³⁸

Schools are urged to develop this field. The assistance of pupils, teachers, and patrons should be enlisted in the collection of materials. All materials should be legibly labeled and systematically filed, stored, or displayed. For these purposes there should be in the schools exhibition panels for display of materials; cabinets for display of specimens; and filing cabinets for storage of certain types of materials. Wherever possible, museum space should be provided. The room used for this purpose should be commodious, well lighted, accessible, and well kept. All materials should be attractively displayed and accurately captioned. The library should become another medium for the collection and distribution of much visual material (see pages 161-67 of this yearbook). In fact, the library should be the hub of the movement in this phase of the work. Nor should the possibilities of these media in adult education be overlooked. Educational films and visual aids present great cultural opportunities for service to this group.

Extracurriculum Activities during the Noon Hour

If those who administer the public schools are sincere about the philosophy so frequently expressed—namely, that we are trying to educate the whole child—there will be no need for asking and answering the question, Should there be a planned program for the noon hour? In the small school, however, there may be a need for

³⁷ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School*. Thirteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1934. 528 p.

³⁸ New York State Association of Elementary Principals. *Visual Aids in the Schools*. Bulletin IV. Utica, N. Y.: Rollin W. Thompson, Roscoe Conkling School, 1935. 160 p.

³⁹ National Education Association, Research Division. "Safety Education thru Schools." *Research Bulletin* 16: 239-98; November 1938.

the question, How can a noon-hour program be organized? This brings up the question, What are the aims and objectives of the noon-hour program? From the pupil's point of view the noon-hour program should be so planned that he can enjoy his lunch in keeping with good health rules and then be permitted to follow his social relationships with his fellow pupils in a relaxed and easy manner indoors or out, in the library, at the ping-pong table, or on the shuffleboard court. Some experts say that activities demanding vigorous exercise such as basketball and boxing should be avoided in the noon-hour program immediately after lunch. The pupil should have an opportunity to help plan, select, and participate in the activities included in the program. The program should be broad enough to meet the interests and desires of all pupils, boys and girls, grade and secondary school, within the limitations of the school plant and grounds. There should be available certain good equipment for the games included in the program planned.

From the teachers' point of view, one teacher should be in charge of the program thruout the year.³⁹ This teacher should be appointed by the superintendent of schools, who will also cooperate in making plans for the program. The teacher should be allowed his customary lunch period either before or after the regular noon hour. He might also be given one less teaching period a day. The individual selected should be in sympathy with the possibilities of the program, and should possess qualities of leadership that will enable him to work with the pupils rather than having them work for him. He should have the ability to organize, check, and delegate to pupil assistants various responsibilities connected with the program. This individual should recognize, plan, and put into practice as much pupil participation as the student body will carry. Since he has been put in charge of the noon-hour program, it is his duty to unify the program from the elementary grades thru the high school, but it is also his privilege to ask for council with the administration or any member of the staff whenever necessary. If he is a sympathetic, understanding person, he may discover new pupil interests that have so far been unnoticed by other members of the staff. Such interests should be reported and developed whenever possible. Finally, there should be a regular budget provided for the program so that the teacher can plan intelligently with his pupil leaders. When pupils and teachers

³⁹ Gibb, Louis S. "The Noon Hour in Smaller Schools." *Journal of the National Education Association* 26:300-301; December 1937.

plan a program together within the limits of a budget, the least the school authorities can do is to make that amount available and then demand results. As a final word of caution, however, the teacher will want and should be given plenty of time to plan his program in advance and sufficient time for the program to become effective before it is evaluated. When the evaluation is made, it should be made in terms of pupil interest, growth, pleasure, and training.

The program will vary according to the planning ability of the person in charge, the pupil interests that can be aroused, the facilities available in and out of doors, and the amount of equipment provided. Several small schools have reported that a budget of \$50, divided between elementary and secondary school, would be large enough to provide equipment. The equipment should include quiet games such as chess and checkers, as well as more active games such as ping-pong, shuffleboard, and volley ball. The library should be open as well as the commercial room, music room, and the shops, for those who wish to use them. Since pupil assistants can be put in charge of each of these rooms, a fine opportunity for pupil participation is created under the guidance of the staff member in charge. It is only when facilities are available and the pupils relaxed that their interests are brought out. New clubs then spring up, such as hobbies, music, and dramatics.

The noon-hour program might well begin by assembling at tables in one room all the pupils who eat lunch at school. Some schools elect a host and hostess for each table. In general, all pupils should remain at their respective tables at least fifteen minutes. After the lunch period, each pupil should go to the place of the activity in which he is interested and for which he has signed up. Pupil supervisors, assistant supervisors, and captains of teams selected by the teacher of each grade or room are responsible to the teacher in charge for the members of their groups, each of whom has registered for a certain activity. In some schools various activities are designated by different colored slips and pupils are given an opportunity to change their original registration only after counseling with the teacher in charge.

Table 6 illustrates a number of the more important activities usually found in a schedule at the secondary-school level. Similar but less diversified schedules might be prepared for noon-hour programs in elementary schools. Also, the more vigorous activities such as basketball may be omitted as some experts advise.

TABLE 6.—ILLUSTRATIVE NOON-HOUR PROGRAM

Activities for Boys:			
Activity	Days	Place	Names of teachers in charge and pupil assistants
Basketball.....	Mon., Wed., Thurs.	Gymnasium	(Number will vary according to program and number of pupils participating.)
Boxing.....	Tues., Thurs., Fri.	Locker room	
Ping-pong and shuffleboard....	Mon., Wed., Thurs.	Lunch room	
Typing practice..	All	Typing room	
Checkers, chess, and other games	All	Agriculture room	
Dramatic club....	Mon., Wed., Thurs. (younger boys) Tues., Fri. (older boys)	English room	
Hobbies club, bridge.....	All	Library	
Instruction in dancing fundamentals.....	Friday	Shop	
Debate club.....	Tues., Fri.	Periodical room	
Book mending....	All	Library repair room	
Band.....	Mon., Wed.	Band room	
Hockey and skating.....	All	Skating rink	
Activities for Girls:			
Basketball.....	Tues., Fri.	Gymnasium	(Number will vary according to program and number of pupils participating.)
Ping-pong and shuffleboard....	Tues., Fri.	Lunch room	
Dramatic club....	Mon., Wed., Thurs. (younger girls) Tues., Fri. (older girls)	English room	
Hobbies club, table games, and bridge....	All	Library	
Typing practice..	All	Typing room	
Dancing.....	Mon., Tues., Thurs.	Shop	
(Assist in instructing beginning boys and girls).....	Wed. (beginners)		
Book mending....	Wed., Fri. All	Shop Library repair room	
Band.....	Mon., Wed.	Band room	
Debate.....	Tues., Fri.	Periodical room	
Skating.....	All	Skating rink	
Handicraft club..	All	Home economics sewing room	
Commercial club..	No set time	Stenography room	
<p>Source: Anderson, Vernon E. "Educational Possibilities of the Noon Hour." <i>Minnesota Journal of Education</i> 16: 207-208; March 1936.</p>			

Use of Noon Hours

A superintendent of a small school located in a town of less than five hundred people describes the noon-hour program in that school as follows:

Our school is consolidated. The town has a population of 350. Our district has 36 sections. We have 200 students in Grades I to VIII and 119 in Grades IX to XII. At least 230 to 250 of these students spend the noon hour on the school grounds or in the building.

For many years we have been faced with the problem of what to do with all these boys and girls during the noon hour. We have tried various combinations of athletics, music, etc. Always we had quite a number who apparently had nothing to do, and "idle hands are the devil's workshop."

Last spring I decided to work out a schedule so that the teaching force could go to lunch in relays. Then instead of using teachers as policemen to preserve order and conserve property I decided to have them sponsor different activities. I also hit upon a scheme for a noon study hall period for those students who couldn't or wouldn't do satisfactory class work. Below I am listing in order the activities we carry on each noon hour. You will note that they vary a lot and provide for almost every type of child.

- (1) Study hall—12:10 to 12:50—all students who are not passing must stay in two days a week for each subject failed. Students doing unsatisfactory daily work may also be required to stay in one or more days. We have from forty to fifty-five in study hall each day with a teacher in charge to help them. Results—more work done and more people taking advantage of other study periods. Some stay because they wish to.
- (2) Athletics—for senior high-school boys—coach in charge. Country boys have equal chance with town boys. Town boys bring lunch in order to play.
- (3) Games such as badminton, deck tennis, kittenball, horseshoe, boxing, for any who wish to play. Boys and girls play together and all are having a big time out of doors. Junior high coach in charge. He plays with them and is quite enthusiastic over the idea. This gets rid of a lot of loafers around the building.
- (4) Senior band two days each week. This takes care of thirty-five to forty students. Band man in charge. Junior or beginning band three noons. There are twelve or fifteen in this.
- (5) Harmonica band—two days a week. Made up of third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade boys and girls. English-music teacher in charge. They started with twenty boys and girls and jumped to thirty-two the first day the harmonicas (cost 25¢) came. Children play pieces at the end of six weeks. Many children from families too poor to buy instruments for the band entered this and enjoyed it a great deal.
- (6) Handicraft for senior high girls one day a week. This has been the least popular of the things we started. I expect this to pick up nearer Christ-

mas and when it becomes too cold to go out of doors. Home economics teacher in charge.

- (7) Play production—this is open to senior high students. About twenty members meet three noons a week. It is almost like a class but without credit. After a background has been built up this group will prepare one-act plays for school and public use. About fifteen or twenty students are in this.
- (8) Use of games and toys for smaller children in their own room is the last activity. It may seem unusual for a school to buy tinker toys, erector sets, games, dolls, etc. We have some in each room and plan to buy more. We try to get things that are constructive in nature if possible. They make the children quieter and more contented and save injury to furniture and children.

After watching this type of program function for eight weeks we will never go back to the old plan of one or two activities at noon and one or two teachers to try to keep order. This way is more work. More teachers bring lunch or stay an extra hour but all are agreed that it is successful. Students are constructively occupied and admit that altho it is harder work they learn more and also have more fun.⁴⁰

Altho it is recognized that the noon-hour programs in many schools will be different because of the varying interests of pupils and facilities available, the outcomes should be directed toward a continued program for leisure education.⁴¹

The desirable individual pupil interests that are discovered by the teacher in charge should be referred back to the homeroom adviser, physical education instructor, librarian, shop teacher, or any other individual who has a part in developing the interests of the boy or girl. The result will be a happy group of boys and girls doing the things they have chosen to do.

Cooperation among Districts

The small school presents a challenging opportunity for rendering every service possible to the community. The school which renders its maximum service will always find a cooperative community response. There are, however, many functions which can be performed more effectively by the small school in cooperation with adjoining schools, either within or without the school district, than can be done by the school's acting as a unit itself. Many functions, likewise, can be performed by consolidating districts and providing

⁴⁰ Based on a statement sent to the Yearbook Commission by Superintendent W. D. Jefferson, Dunkerton, Iowa.

⁴¹ American Association of School Administrators. *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1938. Chapter 6, "Education for Leisure," p. 139-68.

greater community opportunities than have ever existed before. Because a school is small, there is no reason why it should not be wide-awake to these challenging opportunities.

In the past few years, there has been a marked tendency toward providing services hitherto unknown by means of increasing the size of the administrative unit or by the small administrative units cooperating with each other in giving increased opportunities to boys and girls. The problem of the size of the unit has been discussed in Chapter IX. Emphasis in the present chapter will be placed upon the enrichment of learning experiences thru cooperation between districts. For purposes of illustration the treatment will center around (a) exchange assembly programs, and (b) circuit teachers.

Establishing Exchange Assembly Programs

One of the fine possibilities for enriching the curriculum in the small school is the exchange of assembly programs among several schools. These programs may be of all types suggested by the educational experiences of the pupils. They may consist of music (both vocal and instrumental), dramatics (one-act plays), humorous selections, class demonstrations in science, style shows, puppet shows, and debates. They may consist of exhibits of art, the work of hobby clubs, and advertisements of class plays and athletic contests. They may be in celebration of holidays, education week, and special community days. They may also be programs given by local talent—speakers, artists, musicians—outside the school enrolment.

The purpose of the exchange program should be to create friendship and cooperation between schools and to train pupils as listeners and participants. "In most small schools the pupils get sufficient face-to-face contacts, but few of the large group type. It is this latter type which tests the mettle of the pupil. It provides experiences in social adjustment so necessary in a complete program of pupil activities and social control."⁴²

These exchange programs may be the outgrowth of the assembly programs of the local school where they have been given and have proved worthwhile. Organizations which might be responsible for such programs are class organizations, science classes giving actual demonstrations, art and music classes, homerooms, clubs of various types, bands, orchestras, and glee clubs.

⁴² Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1936. p. 321.



*Oh! the old swimmin'-hole! In the long, lazy days
When the hum-drum of school made so many run-a'-ways,
How pleasant was the journey down the old dusty lane,
Where the tracks of our bare feet was all printed so plane
You could tell by the dent of the heel and the sole
They was lots o' fun on hand at the old swimmin'-hole.*
—James Whitcomb Riley.

*Photograph by
Harold M. Lambert*

In each school there should be set up an assembly committee or council consisting of pupils carefully selected under the guidance of one or more faculty members. The programs should be pupil-planned; they should give as many pupils as possible an opportunity to participate. If persons with special talent are available in the community, the assembly committee might invite them to participate occasionally. The aim of the committee should be to offer a wide variety of materials designed to develop an understanding and appreciation in the cultural fields, but the various activities should rise out of the spontaneous interests of pupils and be representative of school and community life.

For a long period of time, competition in athletics, debates, and declamation and music contests has been possible. If the expense can be met to carry on these activities, certainly the expense of carrying on cooperative exchange programs can somehow be cared for. Most schools today have available a school bus or can get local cars to transport those participating in the program to the neighboring school where the program is to be given.

Many schools have used exchange programs in recent years. A few references are given here. McKown⁴³ tells of the experience of four neighboring towns in West Virginia which exchanged assembly programs. Whitmer⁴⁴ gives an account of countywide programs of activities. In the news items of the Minnesota teachers magazine⁴⁵ the following statements are made: "Exchange programs are being planned by the student councils of schools at New London, Granite Falls, Montevideo, and Willmar for the purpose of exchanging talent and promoting goodwill between schools. Exchange programs are coming to be a regular feature of a group of schools including Waterville, Janesville, New Richland, and LeSueur high schools. Waterville students presented a variety program based on the 'March of Radio' in their own school and gave the program later to the other schools. The LeSueur program consisted of chorus numbers and other interesting features." Non-competitive activities of this type are being noted thruout the state, supplementing and in part supplanting the competitive declamatory-debate type of program.

⁴³ McKown, H. C. *Assembly and Auditorium Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. p. 24.

⁴⁴ Whitmer, J. W. "All County High School Extra-Curricular Activities." *High School Teacher* 5:260-62; October 1929.

⁴⁵ Minnesota Education Association. "Facts and Events." *Minnesota Journal of Education*. 18:270; March 1938.

The following description of an exchange assembly program was written by a superintendent.

Company's Coming!

This morning the school is alert to a new rhythm in the routine. Company is coming! The regular schedule has been telescoped and classes are brief with assignments crisp. Even the janitor has sensed the unusual and has taken an extra swipe along the baseboards.

At 10:30 o'clock two foreign buses pull into the curb and unload. In them are forty pupils from our neighboring school 18 miles down the turnpike—a mixed chorus to sing an abbreviated version of "The Rose Maiden"—friendly guests with a gracious gift.

The auditorium is hushed as the curtain drifts open. Then for an hour our pupil assembly is an eager audience, a courteous and appreciative host.

During the current year our school has listened to three such exchange programs—from Minneota, Marshall, and Hendricks, Minn. Three times our own groups have played the role of performing guest to neighboring assemblies. In our auditorium we have enjoyed one-act plays, extemporaneous speakers, vocal soloists, instrumental chamber music, and choral singing. Our next guest, Clarkfield, Minn., is promising a full concert band. Another prospective guest has scheduled a boys' physical education demonstration in expert tumbling. Before long our own school will send out a girls' physical education team demonstrating the graceful rhythms of Danish gymnastics as opposed to the abrupt military calisthenics of Sweden. We also may send our chemistry instructor who has worked out an intriguing program with dry ice. The possibility of variation in such exchange programs is as rich and varied as the treasure of talent in every school.

The educational values of these school exchange programs are obvious and indisputable. On the part of the performers such programs supply a magic stimulus to what might otherwise become tedious practice toward perfection. Pupils are eager to be included in the caravan to nearby schools. The appearance before large audiences develops confidence, assurance, and poise.

On the part of the audience the values are even more salutary, probably because the assembled school is given the more subtle role of host. In this role pupils exhibit a generous hospitality and a gracious geniality never apparent when schools meet in strictly competitive enterprise. Tenseness and other evidence of animosity are absent because nonexistent. Therein lies the prime value of school exchange programs. Erstwhile competitors for a moment forget combat and discover their opponent to be a likeable fellow. The cordial reception, the attentive audience, the friendly intermingling of pupils after the program, the banter and laughter attest the charm of this new found fellowship.

To be sure, our school has relished athletic competition. We have labored to plan our strategy with Apache cunning. We have sought to encourage our warriors with the finest yells in the Comanche repertoire. Occasionally we have come off with a belt full of trophies. Quite as frequently we have dreamed of Empire,

then like the sleek Roman become the easy victim of some marauding horde of leather-armored Visigoths. The salient point, however, is that we also have thrilled to the quiet hour in the auditorium, as host and hostess to our neighbors. We have journeyed to their schools to come on their platform a bit timorous and apprehensive. We have experienced the mystic surge of confidence as we sensed courtesy and goodwill.

Modern interscholastic relationships are too much restricted to contests and tournaments. The competitive idea motivates. Only recently have some few schools sought, in the festival idea, to release music from the I-win—you-lose, what-a-great-boy-am-I complex. Knighthood in flower was tournament-minded, but the modern school has forgotten the flower. Even the plumed knights of old took time out to school themselves in the graces of gallantry. Perhaps that's the answer, chivalry!

Anyway, next month's calendar has a date outlined in red. There goes the band! Company's coming! ⁴⁶

Circuit or Part-Time Teachers

Another plan of enriching the curriculum of the small school is for two or more school districts to cooperate in employing for a given activity a well-qualified teacher, who would spend some time each day, week, or month teaching or supervising in each district. Experiments in three foreign countries and in a number of states in this country have shown that this arrangement can work successfully. The advantages pointed out are economical curriculum enrichment, better-trained teachers, a controlled pupil-teacher ratio,⁴⁷ and another means of reaching certain types of handicapped pupils.⁴⁸

Experiments have shown that the plan can be used in the elementary-⁴⁹ and secondary-school field as well as in the community.

Before the plan is considered, a careful evaluation should be made of all the problems involved.⁵⁰ In the instance of very small schools it may be wiser to close the entire school and transport the pupils to a neighboring school where curriculum enrichments are available. The payment of high-school tuition and transportation aid by a number of states has in recent years increased the educational pos-

⁴⁶ Smith, Myron E. "Company's Coming." *Nation's Schools* 20:42-43; September 1937.

⁴⁷ Ferriss, Emery N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. Roy. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1933. 236 p.

⁴⁸ Cook, Katherine M. "Review of Conditions and Developments in Education in Rural and Other Sparsely Settled Areas." *Biennial Survey of Education: 1934-1936*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1937, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937. Vol. I, Chapter 5, p. 69.

⁴⁹ Gaumnitz, W. H. *Economies through the Elimination of Very Small Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1934, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1934. p. 49.

⁵⁰ Moyer, J. H. "Circuit and Part-Time Teachers." *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Bulletin 1934. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1934. p. 34.

sibilities of many pupils. It would be desirable for states paying these aids to require the schools receiving the aid to offer an enriched curriculum, which would include instruction in agriculture, home economics, industrial training, commercial training, physical and health education, and music and art. When it can be arranged some schools, because of the expense involved in buying equipment for classes such as home economics and industrial training, prefer to transport their pupils to a neighboring school where they can contract for this special class instruction.

The first state in this country reporting the use of circuit teachers was Maine, where in 1920 provisions were made for rotation agriculture schools in the strictly agricultural towns of the state. Other states in which the plan has been used in some form or another are California, Georgia, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Canada and Australia have also had long and successful experience with circuit teachers.⁵¹

The enrichments offered vary in the different counties and states. If one is to judge from the literature written on the subject, most of the courses offered in this country fall into the special subject fields classified as secondary-school subjects, such as agriculture, home economics, and shop. One reason for this may be that in some instances federal and state aid is granted for offering these courses. Other secondary-school subjects mentioned were art, music, and foreign languages. There is, however, no apparent reason why other subjects could not be offered if there were a demand for them, such as economics, commercial work, higher mathematics, or nursing. The work already being done (and more of it should be done) in health by visiting nurses, physicians, and dentists is another form of the plan that reaches the entire school.⁵²

The high school at Glasgow, Montana, is reported as having done an excellent piece of work in the teaching of music.⁵³ The instructor while giving only one-half his time to that school managed to train a band of sixty pieces and an orchestra of fifty. In the elementary field, art and music are listed most frequently in the reports available. The work done in health by visiting nurses, physicians, and dentists mentioned earlier would also apply to the elementary field.

⁵¹ Gaumnitz, W. H., *op. cit.*, p. 48-50.

⁵² Windes, E. E. "Possibilities of Individualized Instruction in Small High Schools." *School and Society* 21: 491-92; April 25, 1925.

⁵³ Ferriss, Emery N.; Gaumnitz, W. H.; and Brammell, P. Roy, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

Massachusetts under state supervision has established a fine cooperative relationship between the state and local school districts. The program offered is in the special education field. Instruction is offered for stutterers and other speech defectives, for the deaf and hard-of-hearing, and for crippled pupils. Many of the last named are confined to their homes, but the following caution is given in regard to such, "Teaching at home, however, even at its best, deprives the child of the opportunities for social contacts and adaptations which he enjoys thru school attendance."⁵⁴

The advantages to the community will probably come largely from the satisfaction of having educational offerings for both the elementary and the secondary schools and also of having available, from the fields of the practical arts, the fine arts, and dramatics, offerings which, if properly planned, might stimulate study groups, forums, and debates.

Suggestions for organizing a plan for the employment of a circuit teacher are given below. Because conditions vary from one community to another, no doubt other problems than those listed will need to be given consideration.

(1) Consideration must be given first to climate and road conditions. This item is important because the teacher must be transported from one school to another.

(2) The subjects to be offered or the service to be rendered must be selected.

(3) Program schedules should be planned with the cooperating schools involved so as to allow a fair time for the teacher to go from school to school.

(4) Proper transportation facilities and equipment must be provided.

(5) A committee, including members from all cooperating schools, should be appointed for the purpose of selecting a competent teacher. The teacher must be well trained, have a good personality, good judgment, and the ability to organize, must be strong physically, and have an interest in developing pupils and the community. His position is not an easy one but is decidedly interesting. His time must be budgeted⁵⁵ to the various school districts in proportion to the time paid for.

(6) A contract should be drawn and signed between the cooperating districts and the teacher, stipulating the amount of teaching service each district is to get and at what price.

(7) A contract should be drawn and signed by the cooperating districts, stipulating how and by whom the necessary equipment is to be supplied. In some instances equipment is purchased cooperatively and transported from school to school. Carefully drawn contracts will avoid many difficulties and help to insure success of the program.

⁵⁴ Cook, Katherine M., *op. cit.*, p. 69.

⁵⁵ Langfitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W., *op. cit.*, p. 215.

In many communities qualified teachers available for part-time service have been employed on a fourth- or half-time basis when the district could finance the salary of a part-time teacher but could not afford to employ another full-time teacher. For example, one district might have all the music instruction in the elementary and secondary school done by a part-time teacher, while another might offer a course in nursing in the same way.

It is interesting to note what administrators say are the advantages and disadvantages of circuit or part-time teachers. The statements listed below are taken from *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*, in which Moyer⁵⁶ reports a Kansas study of part-time teachers.

Some Advantages

- (1) It enables us to give a high quality of instruction to a larger number of pupils.
- (2) Places cost where possible to pay.
- (3) It enables a small school like ours to offer specialized courses under the direction of competent teachers.
- (4) It is possible to secure competent services for several schools when no single one could afford the cost of a full-time teacher.

Some Disadvantages

- (1) Some slight administrative difficulties as to scheduling, etc.
- (2) Instructor cannot readily assist in other school activities.
- (3) The teacher's attention is divided and it should not be.
- (4) When dividing a teacher's time with another school two boards of education must work in harmony. This we have been unable to accomplish.

According to the foregoing statements, the advantages given outweigh the disadvantages. No doubt, as refinements of the various plans are made and experimentation is continued, new plans even more successfully will be developed.

Conclusion

If the school curriculums in small communities are to be improved, there must be built into the lives of both laymen and teachers a philosophy based on long-time planning and careful experimentation. The chief goal would be to present—either by improving the local facilities or by the transportation of pupils to another district—a

⁵⁶ Moyer, J. H., *op. cit.*, p. 33-34.

dynamic curriculum of worthwhile experiences which challenges the *immediate* as well as the remote interests and needs of learners.⁵⁷ Such a curriculum would also be *life-centered*—related to the family life of the pupils and centered in the actual problems and opportunities of group living. Efforts in this direction would of necessity require the school to reach out to the other agencies of the community as is suggested in Chapter VI of the present yearbook and as illustrated in the 1939 yearbook of the Department of Rural Education. Other sources of practical suggestions are such publications as *Creative Ways for Children's Programs*, *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*, *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*, and *The Rural Teacher's Work*.⁵⁸ State departments of education are making new and vital materials available. Selected lists of references for small schools are being prepared in the federal Office of Education.⁵⁹

⁵⁷ For a point of view on the characteristics of the local school unit see Chapters I and IX of this yearbook. For details on the "dynamic curriculum" suggested by this sentence consult the 1938 yearbook, *Youth Education Today*, Chapter 3.

⁵⁸ Murray, Josephine, and Bathurst, Effie G. *Creative Ways for Children's Programs*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1938. 396 p. ¶ Wofford, Kate V. *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. 582 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1938. 144 p. ¶ Slacks, John R. *The Rural Teacher's Work*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1938. 413 p.

⁵⁹ There will be issued early in 1939 *Good Reference Bibliographies* as follows: "Music Instruction Especially Helpful in Small Schools" and "Art Instruction Especially Helpful in Small Schools." These bibliographies have been prepared by Walter H. Gaumnitz and Martha R. McCabe.

CHAPTER VIII

Schoolhouse Planning

IT IS A UNIQUE CHARACTERISTIC of the small community that the school is frequently the only public building in the region.¹ For this reason buildings should be planned for a wide range of school and lay activities. The grounds also should provide suitable areas for recreation, for parking of cars, and for public events such as concerts, ball games, and picnics. Thus thru its physical facilities and thru an educational program such as outlined in other chapters of the present yearbook, the school builds itself into the life of the community.

It is not possible within the compass of the present chapter to discuss all the problems of schoolhousing. For this reason special attention is given to some of the more outstanding topics under the five headings: (1) the superintendent's responsibilities; (2) the site and landscaping; (3) the nature and application of basic principles; (4) modernization and maintenance programs; and (5) future trends. These aspects will be discussed primarily from the angle of schoolhousing in small communities.

The Superintendent's Responsibilities

Before any building operations begin the superintendent should be thoroly familiar with his part in the various steps of the program. Among the problems to which he should give attention are the following:

(1) *What should be the educational program?* The school building and its equipment exist as a means for putting the educational program into operation. In cooperation with the local schoolboard, the citizens of the area, and the state educational authorities, the purposes and plans of the schools should be clearly defined. Obviously, this statement will include the social and educational philosophy of the American way of life.²

¹ This chapter was prepared with the assistance of Merle A. Stoneman of the University of Akron. Particular credit is due to Mr. Stoneman for the discussion of the three basic principles and for the suggested floor plans, p. 189-211. In 1939 he will publish a detailed treatment in a volume entitled: *Supplementary Standards for the Small Twelve-Grade School Plant*.

² Suggestions on this aspect will be found in the chapters on the curriculum (V, VI, and VII), leadership (XI and XIII), transportation (X), and district organization (IX).

(2) *What are the needs and resources of the district?* A truly community school will seek to utilize and to improve local conditions. To do this will involve a study of population and enrolment trends, changes in the occupational patterns, the ability of the community to finance the educational program, and the desirability of district reorganization.³

(3) *What is the status of the existing educational facilities?* The existing plant should be critically surveyed to determine its adaptability to the educational program now offered or to be proposed.⁴

(4) *What policies should guide the schoolhouse planning?* After the collection of data on the foregoing three questions the schoolboard and the superintendent are ready to make several important decisions. Policies must be determined on such problems as the following: (a) outlining a practical educational program for the next period of years; (b) obtaining approval and support of the educational program by the citizens;⁵ (c) determining whether to modernize the existing facilities or to provide new facilities; and (d) determining whether to finance the building program by bonding or on a "pay-as-you-go" basis.⁶

(5) *What plan should be followed in a program of remodeling or modernization?* If the facts in the situation indicate that modernization is required it is advisable to follow definite steps such as those outlined later in this chapter.

(6) *What procedures should be followed in a program of new construction?*

(a) *Specific school needs*—With the aid of the principals and teachers the superintendent should list the subjects and grades to be taught, the type of school organization, the length of periods and of the school day, the sizes of classes, the requirements of the adult program, and other specific needs of the general educational plan.⁷

(b) *Architectural services*—Care should be taken to select the architect in terms of his skill as shown in previous work, his familiarity with school

³ For suggestions on how to study population and enrolment trends see: Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Planning School Building Programs*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. p. 1-90. With regard to the financial ability of the district and the legal limitations consult the state department of education. Chapter IX of the present yearbook discusses the question of district reorganization.

⁴ A number of the state departments of education, as well as universities, are equipped to assist in making school building surveys. Checklists may be obtained from these sources as well as from the publications in the field, such as: Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for Junior High School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. 161 p. ¶ Strayer, George D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for High School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. 95 p. ¶ Strayer, George D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for Elementary School Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 181 p. ¶ Holy, T. C., and Arnold, W. E. "Standards for Junior-High-School Buildings." *American School Board Journal* 86:21-22, 64, January; 32, March; 24, 59, April 1933. ¶ Holy, T. C., and Arnold, W. E. *Standards for the Evaluation of School Buildings*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1936. 79 p.

⁵ The determination of policies must rest largely upon public opinion. Chapter XII of the present yearbook deals with many of the principles and technics in a program of public relations.

⁶ Bonding as opposed to a "pay-as-you-go" policy has been a question for prolonged debate. Factors within each district and state must be considered in each case. Essex has presented a number of the arguments pro and con in his *Bonding Versus Pay-as-you-go in the Financing of School Buildings*. Contributions to Education, No. 496, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1931. 101 p. Consult also Chapters XIV, XV, XVI, and XVII of the present yearbook.

⁷ State departments such as the one in Wisconsin often provide checklists which can be used in determining specific school needs. The standard school building score-cards are also helpful. In December 1937 there were directors of schoolhousing in the following states: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and Wisconsin.

building standards, his ability to create pleasing effects, and his success in providing workable plans. State departments should be consulted not only with regard to architectural services but with regard to the safety prescriptions and other standards in the state law.⁸

(c) *Educational principles*—Even with capable architectural guidance the superintendent should be sure that the new building is adapted to educational activities. The three basic principles discussed later in this chapter are particularly important in connection with building programs of small communities.⁹

(d) *Supervision of construction*—Thruout the construction the superintendent should check with the architect, contractor, and supervisor upon the progress of the work, compliance with specifications, and adherence to the plans. In some instances the schoolboard may wish to employ a consulting architect or contractor to help with the supervision of the work.¹⁰

Every building program and every building must be planned in terms of the needs of a specific educational program and of a particular community. No standard plan can be made to fit equally well the conditions of all districts. As Moehlman has written: "The efficient school plant should be a custom-made job, fitted specifically to the individual needs in a particular district."¹¹

Site and Landscaping

The references cited in the footnotes of the preceding pages include a number of the standards to be utilized in selecting school sites. At this point it is only necessary to emphasize several standards of concern to the administrator in small communities:

(1) *Location*—The problem of transportation makes a difference in the location of the building site. In most instances it is best to locate in the center of the most densely populated section which will eliminate the obligation of fur-

⁸ See "Direct Selection of an Architect" in *School Building Problems* by George D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1927. p. 156-75.

⁹ The references cited in footnote 4 contain suggestions on how to incorporate educational standards in architectural plans. See also: "Factors Pertinent to School Building Planning" in the *Proceedings, 1936*, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, p. 100-120. (Address Ray L. Hamon, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.)

¹⁰ Courses on schoolhouse evaluation and construction are now included in the training programs of a number of universities. The superintendent may also obtain guidance from such articles as "Improvements in Schoolhouse Construction," Francis R. Scherer, in *Proceedings, 1936*, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction. See also *The Architectural Record* (F. W. Dodge Corporation, New York), *The Architectural Forum* (Rogers and Manson Corporation, New York), *American School and University* (American School Publishing Corporation, New York), and *American Architect and Architecture* (New York).

¹¹ Moehlman, Arthur B. "Appraising the Existing School Plant." *Nation's Schools* 7:84-90; March 1931. ¶ Moehlman, Arthur B. "Educational Policy and the School Plant." *Nation's Schools* 6:51-54; July 1930.

nishing transportation to the largest number.¹² The accessibility of the site over good roads or the possibility of making good roads without too much cost is highly important where transportation is involved.

(2) *Type of land*—Soil must be thought of in terms of a surface for playgrounds and also as to fertility for landscaping and beautification of the site. Often a site must be improved for one or both of these factors and the cost of such changes should be thought out before the site is determined.

(3) *Safety*—If there is a dangerous highway nearby, then careful consideration should be given to the possibility of a well-constructed and well-drained underpass for the children so their traffic may be concentrated for protection. If the site is along a highway there should be a playground fence constructed between the play areas and the street or highway to prevent the children from running into danger or crossing the street or highway without protection. Rural and small communities are usually without police protection for the children at the school crossings.

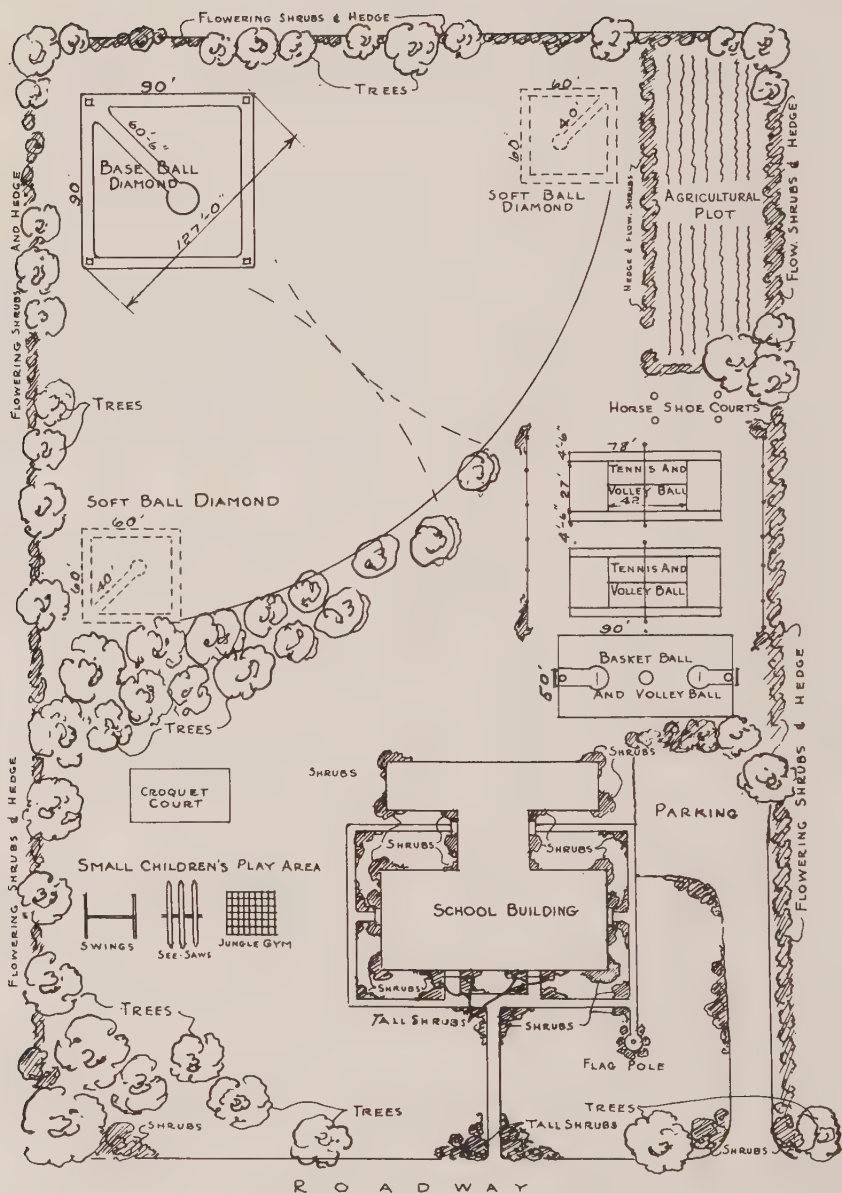
(4) *Size*—The total area of the school site must be based upon the availability of suitable land and upon the demands of the school program. Consideration must be given to such possible demands as outdoor activities required by agricultural classes, parking spaces for buses, living accommodations for part or all of the teaching staff, and pupil and adult recreational facilities.

(5) *Flexibility*—There is often a need for expanding the size of the site as conditions change. The attendance area may be expanded or other factors may make a change in the population or in the educational offerings and responsibilities which demand more area and play space for the school or community. It is therefore important to consider the possibilities of future expansion even though the needs are not now apparent.

Thoughtful planning is needed for the expenditure of the funds which are available for building purposes. Too frequently a community spends a disproportionate amount of available funds upon the construction of a building and finds itself without sufficient money for equipment, furniture, and landscaping.¹³ The outworn and outmoded furniture and the inadequate equipment are then moved into the fine new building which is too frequently situated on a tract which remains barren and devoid of landscaping, playground facilities, fences, or walks. The program should be so planned that adequate provision is made for those necessary phases of the plant.

¹² Since the selection of the site often arouses intense public interest George D. Coons has suggested a procedure involving ratings of proposed sites by state authorities followed by a public meeting for a preferential vote to designate the most popular site. See his "Some Essential Guides in the Review and Approval of Plans and Specifications by State Divisions of School Building Service," *Proceedings, 1936, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction*, p. 48.

¹³ The question of adequate insurance is treated in Chapter XVI.



The Julius Rosenwald Fund

FIGURE VI.—LANDSCAPE LAYOUT FOR A FIVE-TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL ON A FIVE-ACRE SITE

Suggestions for the arrangement of the school grounds can be obtained from such organizations as the National Recreation Association (New York, N. Y.) and the Julius Rosenwald Fund (Nashville, Tenn.). Figure VI shows a suggested layout for a five-teacher community school.¹⁴ Further possibilities which utilize community and pupil interest are described in the yearbooks of the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association.¹⁵

The Nature and Application of Basic Principles

Standards which apply to school buildings, large or small indiscriminately, fail in several respects to make provision for certain definite needs of the small school system. For purposes of this discussion, the principles advanced to fulfil these needs seem to group themselves under the three heads: (a) flexibility, (b) multiple supervision, and (c) multiple use of space. In the first part of this section these principles will be discussed and illustrated in turn. The application of these three principles to floor plans will be shown later in this section.

The Principle of Flexibility

Flexibility is not a problem of the small school alone, as the most casual examination of standards will indicate, but various aspects of the problem are peculiarly those of a small school. This becomes evident when it is remembered that flexibility in a school building is achieved when construction is planned so as to permit adjustments to space needs, not only at some indefinite future time but at any time and without undue and expensive changes. In relation to the small school field the following three phases are important: (a) devices to permit immediate changes in room spaces; (b) construction planned for future additions to the building or for possible changes of partitions; and (c) special adaptations to a variety of uses, such as use of the same space for widely varying activities.

Devices to permit immediate changes in room spaces—The great variety of activities which are carried on in small schools and the limited space which is of necessity provided there make it essential that this space be efficiently utilized. In order to do this, it is some-

¹⁴ Julius Rosenwald Fund. *Suggestions for Landscaping Rural Schools*. Nashville, Tenn.: the Fund, 1936, p. 8. See also from the same source: *Improvement and Beautification of Rural Schools*, 1936, 30 p.

¹⁵ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Adjustments in Rural Education*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1937, p. 69-90. Also, from the same source: *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary School Curriculum*, 1934, p. 43-46, 65-68.

times found that provisions for larger or smaller rooms than are regularly available are needed rather frequently. When these can be provided without actually building additional rooms, a real economy is realized. Common types of changes are movable partitions between two or more classrooms to allow for auditorium or community activities and movable partitions within classroom units to provide small work and conference rooms. There are three types of movable partitions widely used in small schools: folding, roll-up, and removable. The folding type is particularly useful when frequent changes of room spaces are necessary. Altho not as sound-proof as the folding partition the roll-up type has advantages in shops and workrooms. The removable partition is of value when the space rearrangements are to be continued indefinitely.

Construction planned for future additions to the building or for possible changes of partitions—The United States is still too young for communities in any section of the country to be convinced that they can with absolute accuracy predict how many children it will be necessary to educate at any one time. New industries often cause a marked growth in a small community's population, and declining industries result in a corresponding loss. It should be remembered in this connection that a relatively small increase as far as actual numbers are concerned may represent a marked percentage increase in a small community, and may readily cause an overcrowded condition in school facilities which were adequate before the increase took place.

If a new building is added to care for the increase, or an addition is made to an existing building, it will not contain all the instructional units of the original building. If the building already in use was well planned, with the possibility of an increasing enrolment in mind, the playground will probably be adequate, the gymnasium large enough, and the science room and the shop may each be large enough. Investigation may show that the elementary enrolment has increased until an additional teacher is needed. Enrolment in high school may be large enough that additional classes which were previously offered by correspondence or not at all may be taught locally, or certain classes that have been taught on alternate years are now necessary each year. This may well result in the addition of another high-school teacher, and a corresponding need for more classroom space. A careful analysis may show, then, that one new elementary-

grade room is needed, and two new high-school rooms. Should this be true, the solution to the difficulty will probably be an addition to the present building.

In some instances a small community is faced with a decreasing enrolment at the elementary-school level. Large cities are able to close buildings and transfer classes to other school units. In small towns the reasonable procedure is to use only part of the available building, closing up the unused portions so as to save fuel and upkeep expenses. On the elementary level this will probably mean combining several grades under one teacher. If the grade rooms have been properly planned, this will cause but a minimum amount of maladjustment as far as equipment and space provisions are concerned.

On the secondary-school level the logical solution is to provide a combination of activities greater than that being practiced in the school at the time so as to permit high utilization of space in those portions of the building kept in use, and the abandoning of unused rooms. Since, if a desirable curriculum is to be offered, most if not all of the special rooms will still be required, the rooms abandoned will tend to be those used for the teaching of the academic subjects. This discussion is an argument for planning the special rooms so that they may be used satisfactorily as general classrooms as well as for their characteristic activities, should the occasion arise when it proved desirable.

One further aid to flexibility, altho not characteristic of the small school alone, is the use, whenever feasible, of non-bearing partitions between rooms. Hamon indicates this when he states: "The most practical way of altering the size of a room is by moving the end wall. For this reason, end-partition walls should be non-bearing and, so far as possible, free from pipes and ducts."¹⁶ The end-partitions mentioned may serve thruout the lifetime of the building and the occasion never arise which would call for their removal. When end-partitions can be changed or removed entirely they may be of particular value in the small school, since enrolment changes are more likely to demand changes in the space needs of a given room rather than the provision of additional rooms.

Special adaptations to a variety of uses—Combination rooms are not new; such standard combinations as gymnasium-auditorium and

¹⁶ Hamon, Ray L. "Structural Changes Which Modern Educational Ideas May Involve." *American School and University*, 1935. New York: American School Publishing Corp., 1935. p. 39.

science classroom-laboratory are in general use in numerous states. The practicability of combination rooms is not even confined to the small school situation.¹⁷ The significance of this type of room to a study of the small school is the obvious necessity for using any given classroom for at least two dissimilar activities. In a very small school each room must provide for several different types of activities. The need for the type of flexibility which will facilitate the highest degree of utilization gives combination rooms their prominence later in this chapter. The interrelation between flexibility and the use of combination rooms is thus indicated and will be discussed in detail in the treatment of the third basic principle.

The Principle of Multiple Supervision

There are certain practices in small school organization which often lead to low utilization of space as well as inefficient management of teacher time. An illustration will make this point clear. For example, there is the probability that there will be one or more periods during the day when a few pupils will not be in regular classes. Under a single supervisory setup, there are three possibilities open—to have the study hall supervisor teach a class in the study hall, to have a study hall supervisor for the few pupils, or to leave the study hall without direct supervision. None of these practices is entirely satisfactory. Since, for reasons given later in this chapter, the study hall in the small school should be combined with the library, the holding of a class in that room defeats the purpose for which the combination was made. The use of a teacher for the few pupils means that one of the teacher's periods is used for a comparatively small return. Reliance on student morale to make it possible to dispense with direct supervision may be effective from a disciplinary standpoint, but it means that the pupils during this period are deprived of the guidance and assistance for which a teacher is provided in the library-study hall. Since this may be the only period of the day in this room for some if not all of these pupils, there is a serious loss. Consequently, the need for the inclusion of the library-study hall in some multiple supervisory unit seems indicated.

There seem to be three means of providing multiple supervision which are readily applicable to most school plants. These three means follow: (a) placing of rooms adjacent to each other which

¹⁷ In this connection see: Holy, T. C., and Dieterich, H. C. "Rooms Planned for Multiple Use Feature a Suburban School." *Nation's Schools* 14: 44-49; October 1934.

may be supervised by a single teacher; (b) use of open window or open partition between rooms; and (c) use of glazed partition, or glazed openings in the wall.

An evaluation of the above three means of achieving multiple supervision must take into account the specific use in each instance. The use of adjacent rooms does allow the teacher to divide his time between two activities being carried on simultaneously, but has the disadvantage of making it impossible for him to observe from one room when his presence is desired in the other. This results either in neglect of one room or many time-consuming trips from one to the other. It seems reasonable to assume that in any activity in which teacher assistance is required with any degree of frequency, this type of supervisory organization is relatively unsatisfactory.

The use of the open window, a partition with an open arch, or even a counter across the room appears to serve with a high degree of satisfaction wherever there are no noise or dust factors involved. Usually, however, noise at least is a factor, since most activities require a greater or less degree of pupil or pupil-teacher conference, and this may tend to be a disturbing element. Certainly its use in the shop is not to be recommended, since both noise and dust are factors there.

The use of the clear glass partition has increased considerably in recent years. Its advantages are a relative imperviousness to sound and dust as well as the provision of an unobstructed view of the supervisory unit. It is subject to breakage, altho there is little objection reported on this score. One variant of the glazed partition is a small opening or window thru which the teacher may observe another room. This has the advantage of allowing the use of the dividing partition in its usual fashion but has the disadvantage of requiring the teacher to stand directly in front of it in order to observe the other room. Use of a panel of glass at least three by eight feet, the bottom of which is forty-two to forty-eight inches from the floor, will permit the most effective use of the device.

The Principle of Multiple Use of Space

The large number of curriculum, extracurriculum, and community activities which are carried on in the relatively few space units of the small school make it mandatory that some of these units accommodate two or more activities. The problem is really based on the need for special rooms for some educational activities, since if all

activities made similar equipment and space requirements, the only problem would be the provision of adequate space. It was shown in the preceding discussion that certain special rooms seem indicated for the small school. In fact, most combinations of activities in the small school will take place in a special room, since few if any of their rooms may be classed as "standard" classrooms. That multiple use of special rooms is not a new or theoretical problem is shown by the following quotation of a statement made a decade ago: "Not only should buildings and grounds be designed and constructed for multiple use, but laboratories and special rooms likewise. In planning the facilities for a small high school, multiple use is especially desirable."¹⁸

Altho this particular problem has been faced for many years and in individual school systems has been more or less satisfactorily solved, no authoritative set of standards is available for planning combination rooms, nor, apparently, has any comprehensive study been made to determine the most feasible and effective combinations of activities. Some combinations, it is true, have been used so long and so frequently that their use has become standardized to some degree. The auditorium-gymnasium and science classroom-laboratory are examples of this. In other instances, certain combinations have been the outgrowth of local conditions, such as overcrowding or lack of sufficient funds. There can be no doubt that many combinations have been unwisely made, and that there is need for a careful consideration of all factors involved in each individual instance.

Suggested Floor Plans for Small Schools

This section is concerned with the practical application of the principles outlined in the preceding sections. Plans have been drawn illustrating each of the principles recommended for use in the typical small school. Floor plans combining selected rooms into multiple supervisory units are also included in order to show, at least tentatively, how these suggested plans may be developed in a workable fashion. Each plan presented will be explained briefly, its particular advantages pointed out, and in certain of the plans possible variations will be indicated.

Gymnasium-auditorium with stage and bleachers—Figure VII illustrates a minimum-sized gymnasium-auditorium. It is based upon

¹⁸ Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 353.

an arrangement developed by Viles of the Missouri State Department of Education, and the general plan here indicated is in common use in that state. While the plan meets only minimum requirements as to size, there is no reason why the dimensions may not be expanded so as to provide a playing floor of any desired dimensions, permanent bleachers of any desired capacity, and a stage of the desired width and depth. Especially useful features of the plan as drawn include the placing of the stage next to the main building. In this way, nearby classrooms may be used as stage dressing-rooms. These, for school programs such as operettas in which many pupils participate, will prove more satisfactory than the comparatively

FIGURE VII

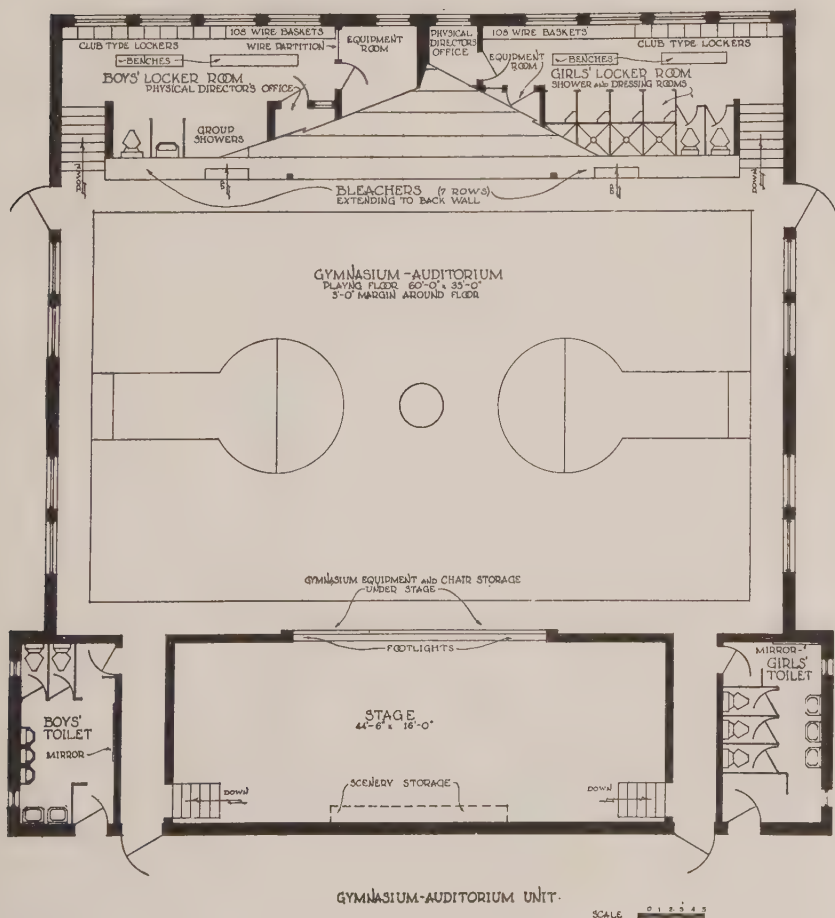
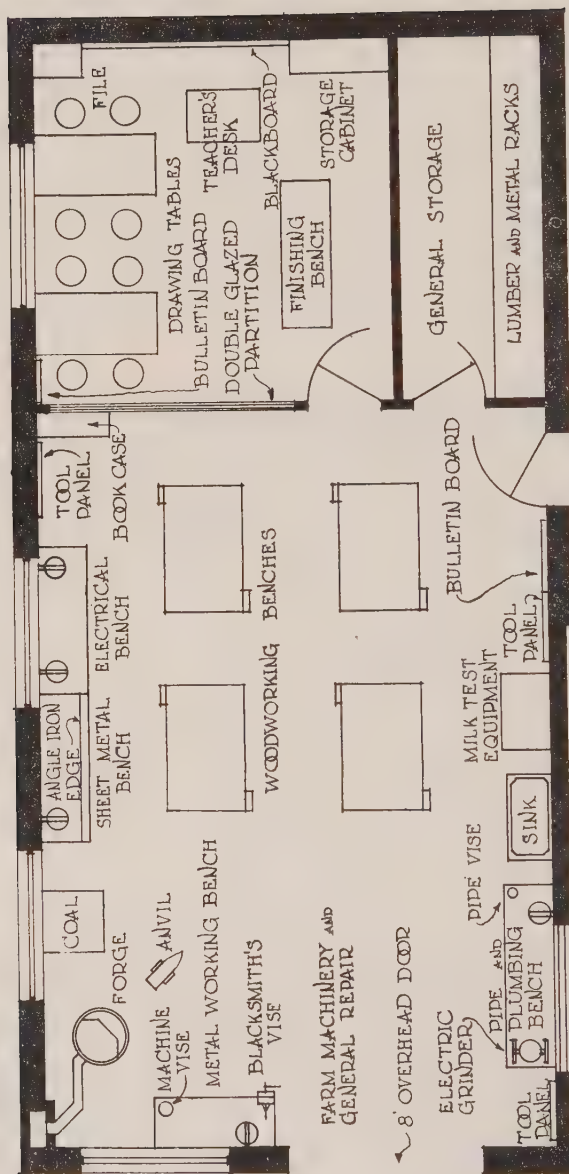


FIGURE VIII



SHOP LAYOUT.

SIZE 45'-0" x 21'-0"
 COMBINATION GENERAL AND FARM
 SHOP IN WHICH PROVISION IS
 MADE FOR A SEPARATE DRAWING
 AND FINISHING ROOM AND FOR
 INDIRECT SUPERVISION FROM AN
 ADJACENT CLASSROOM.

SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

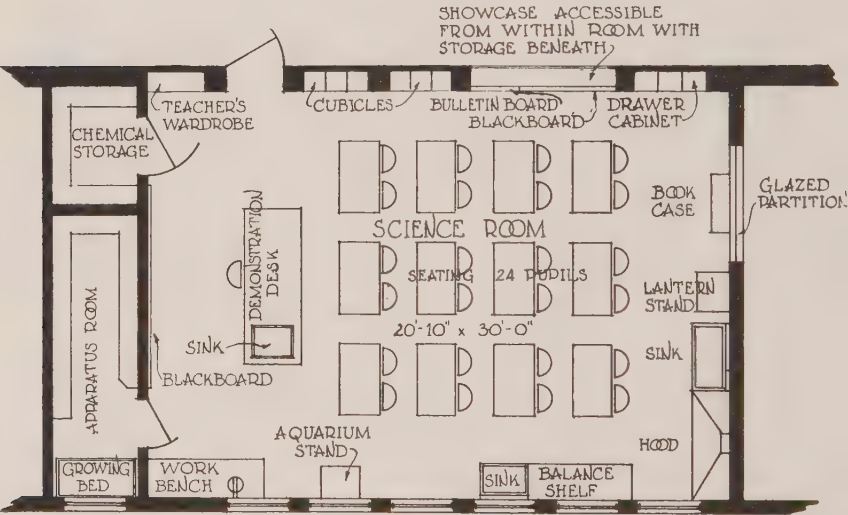
cramped quarters frequently provided adjacent to the stage. The location of both boys' and girls' toilets is especially advantageous. They are available for use during the school day, altho access to the gymnasium-auditorium may be cut off by locking the doors opening into the corridor leading to the playing floor. These toilets are also placed with relation to the stage, because they serve the gymnasium-auditorium unit even when the doors to the main building are locked.

Space under the permanent bleachers is utilized for providing dressing-rooms, storage rooms, and showers for both boys and girls. The plan provides for entrance to these rooms and exit from them without crossing the playing floor, since the stairways down to these rooms are immediately adjacent to doors opening from the corners of the playing floor. These doors may be used not only by pupils passing between the dressing-rooms and the playground outside, but also may be used for the entrance to the bleachers at the time of athletic contests and to the entire gymnasium-auditorium floor when stage activities are in prospect. Use of these doors makes unnecessary the opening of the main building for community or school activities requiring only the gymnasium-auditorium unit.

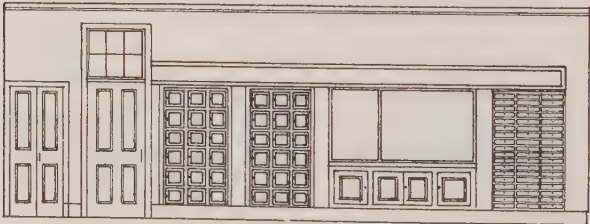
An agriculture and general shop layout—This plan has been developed to fit a school building which utilizes classroom units twenty-one feet by thirty feet (see Figure VIII). The entire shop unit illustrated in this plan includes one and one-half such units. Multiple supervision is provided within the unit by means of a double-glass partition which separates the teacher's desk and the finishing bench from the shop proper. Multiple supervision of the entire unit from an adjacent room is secured by means of a double-glazed partition over the plumbing bench. In this way, it is possible for a teacher in a nearby classroom to supervise activities carried on within the shop when no regularly scheduled class is in that room. Double-glazed partitions are suggested in order to eliminate as much of the sound of the shopwork as is possible. Four woodworking benches will accommodate eight pupils at a time. In addition, an electrical bench, a sheet metal bench, a metal working bench, a plumbing bench, and a bench for milk test equipment are all included in the plan. A forge and anvil are also furnished, as is a large overhead door which permits taking farm machinery in and out.

A combination science laboratory and classroom—A combination science room adequate for twenty-four pupils at a time, and which may be used also as a general recitation room if desired, is illustrated by Figure IX. Tables seating two pupils each are recommended. These may be equipped with individual gas and water connections if desired, tho this seems necessary only when specific state or local requirements demand it. Cubicles and drawers for individual storage of equipment and supplies are available on the corridor side of the room. A showcase accessible from within the room and opening on

FIGURE IX



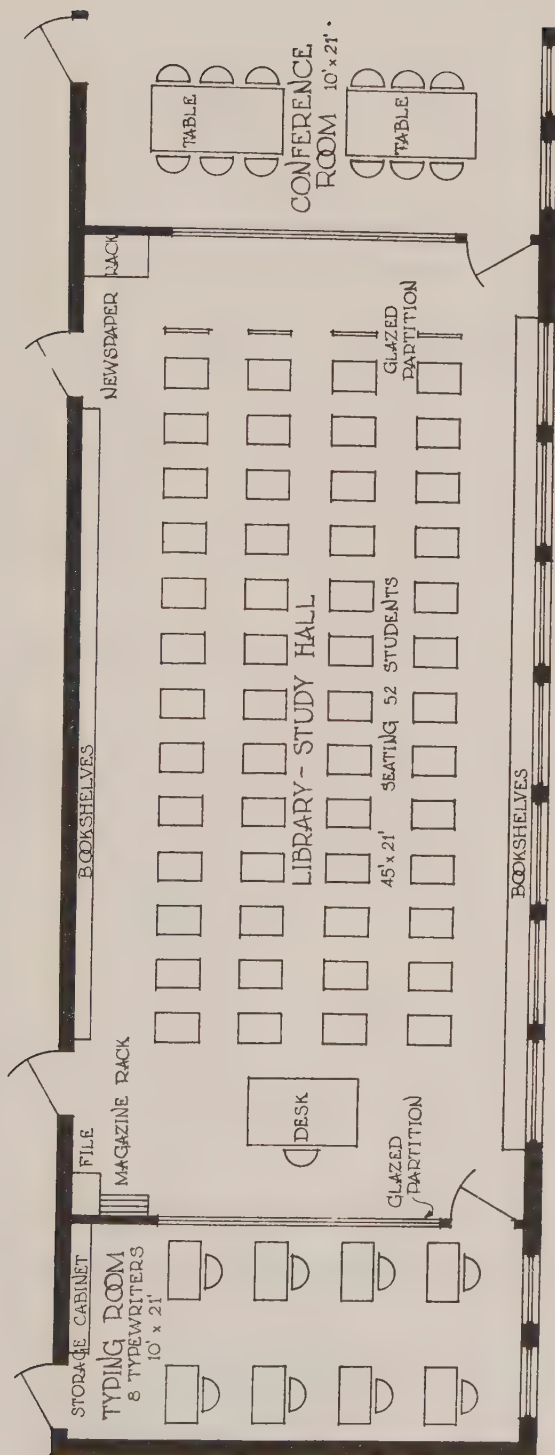
COMBINATION SCIENCE LABORATORY
AND CLASSROOM



ELEVATION
SHOWING CUBICLES
AND DRAWER CABINET

SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

FIGURE X



MULTIPLE SUPERVISORY UNIT
 INCLUDING A LIBRARY STUDY HALL
 WITH ACCESSORY ROOMS AT EACH
 END SEPARATED BY GLAZED PARTITION.

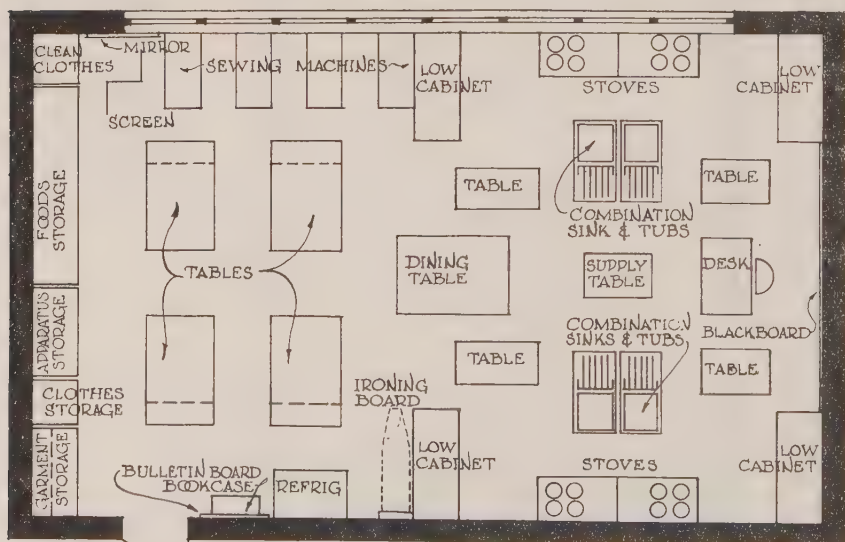
SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

the corridor is also recommended. This may be used for the exhibition of projects from science classes or from other classes as well. Multiple supervision may be secured by the use of glazed partitions in the rear of the room. The apparatus room and the chemical storage room are adjacent to the teacher's demonstration desk and hence readily available.

Library, study hall, and typing and conference rooms—This plan shows a library-study hall which, if library tables are used, will provide space for thirty-six pupils (see Figure X). A typing room at one end of the unit and a conference room at the other end are provided, supervision of each from the central room being achieved by means of glass partitions. One teacher will find it possible to supervise satisfactorily activities in all three divisions of the unit. The entire unit requires the equivalent of two and one-sixth standard classroom units.

A combination homemaking room—In the plan illustrated in Figure XI all the homemaking activities of a small school may be

FIGURE XI



A COMBINATION HOMEMAKING ROOM
SUGGESTED FOR SMALL SCHOOLS BY THE
MINNESOTA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

carried on in one room. The drawing here shown is based upon a plan suggested by the Minnesota State Department of Education. The room required could apparently be satisfactorily arranged within the standard unit of twenty-one feet by thirty feet. Equipment is available for sewing, cooking, pressing, and for carrying on class discussion. Adequate storage is provided for garments, apparatus, and foods. Room is also available for the teacher's desk, a refrigerator, four sinks and tubs, and four stoves. Tables are provided which will serve both as dining tables and as cutting tables for garment-making. Blackboard and bulletin board space is provided, as well as space for a bookcase. Four low cabinets which supply additional storage space complete the furnishings.

Special room for kindergarten and primary grades—The room illustrated is suitable for pupils from the kindergarten thru the third grade (see Figure XII). It requires slightly more than a standard classroom unit of space. A cloakroom and storage space for large equipment are indicated at the front, while a toilet and two other small rooms are shown in the end opposite the teacher's desk. The latter two rooms, which are separated from the classroom proper by glass doors and partitions, are designated as reading and play rooms.

In the classroom, seating space is available for sixteen pupils at the work tables, not including the chairs grouped about or near the teacher's desk, seven such chairs being indicated in the drawing. A water fountain and lavatory are included within this part of the unit. A considerable amount of blackboard and bulletin board space is also provided.

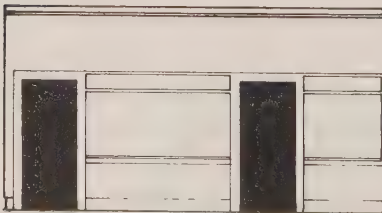
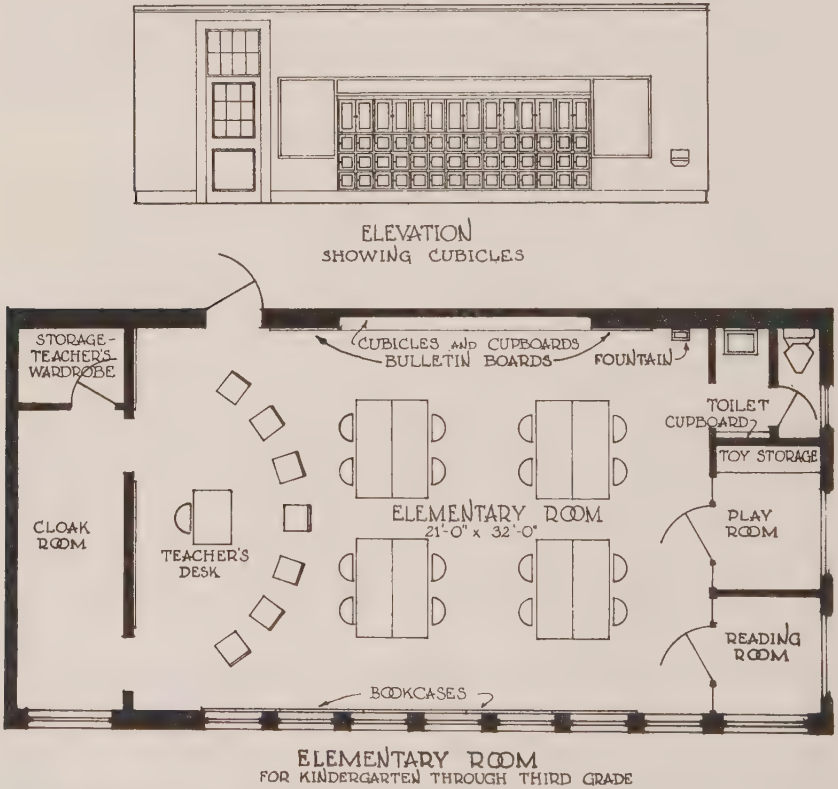
The reading and play rooms are intended for use by pupils not engaged in recitation activities at any given time. Since, in a school combining the kindergarten and the first three grades, the enrolment in each grade will tend to be quite small, it is entirely possible that each of these small rooms will accommodate an entire grade at a time and will make it possible for the pupils to carry on activities which otherwise would interfere with the activities carried on simultaneously in other grades. Space is indicated in the playroom which may be utilized for toy storage.

Another special feature of this plan is the unusual amount of storage space recessed in the corridor wall. This storage space is in the form of cupboards for teacher use and cubicles below the cupboards

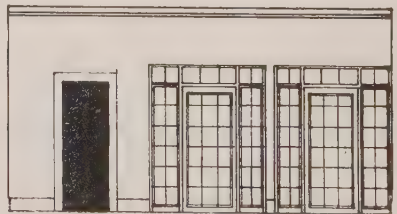
for pupil use. Bookcases may be located on the outside wall below the windows. If it should be necessary to place radiators on this side of the room, the bookcases may well be alternated with such radiators.

It is desirable that a corner location on the ground floor, preferably at the southeast corner of the building, be utilized for the elementary room shown here. Such location would insure outside light for the

FIGURE XII



FRONT WALL ELEVATION



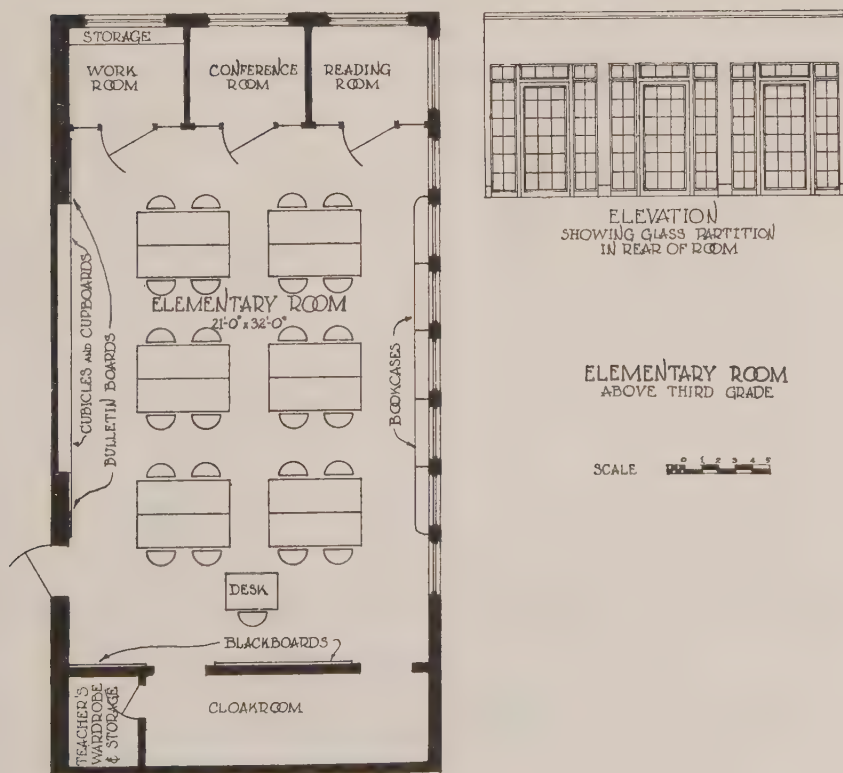
REAR WALL ELEVATION

SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

playroom and toilet. There seems to be no reason, however, why this plan or a similar one cannot be developed when a corner location is not available provided that adequate artificial lighting is installed.

Elementary room for Grades IV, V, and VI—This plan is intended to serve Grades IV to VI in a school utilizing the preceding plan for kindergarten and primary grades (see Figure XIII). The plan is similar to the kindergarten-primary room so far as storage room, cloakroom, blackboard and bulletin board space, cubicles, cupboards, and bookcases are concerned. It requires the same amount of floor area. Seating space is provided for twenty-four pupils at tables in the classroom, and three small rooms are provided at the back of the room which are here called workroom, conference room, and reading room. These, as was the case in the preceding plan, may provide opportunity for activities under the supervision of the

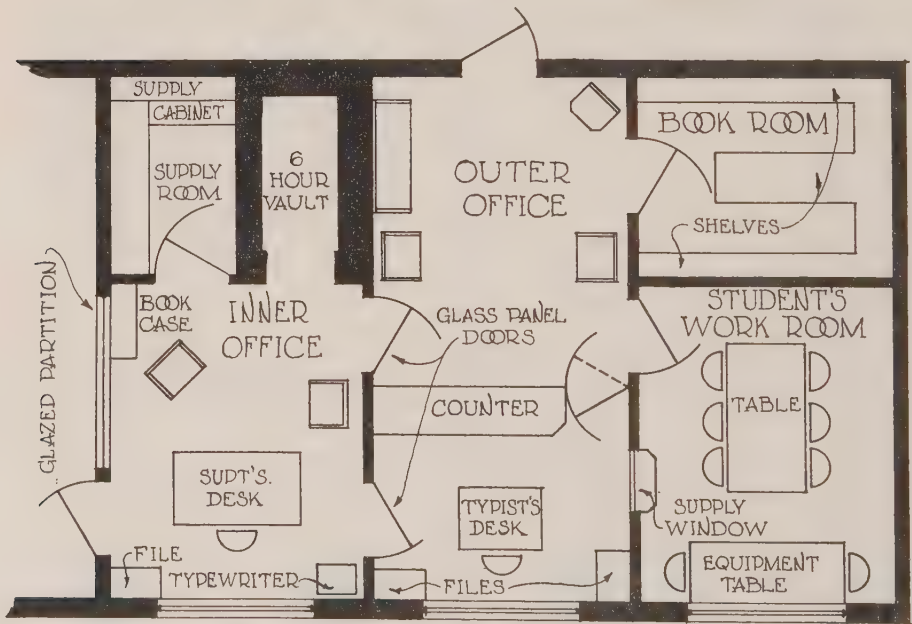
FIGURE XIII



teacher, which would otherwise interfere with activities within the classroom. The three small rooms are separated from the classroom proper by glazed partition and doors.

Office suite—The plan illustrates a suite in which all the office activities of a twelve-grade school employing a superintendent as the only administrative officer may be carried on (see Figure XIV). It has the advantage of requiring exactly one classroom unit of space, and, at the same time, provides an inner office, an outer office, a secretary's office, a student's workroom, a bookroom, a supply room, and a vault. The superintendent's inner office is so located that it is accessible to the secretary without the necessity of passing thru the outer office. In addition to the equipment shown in the drawing, the inner office should include a small bookcase and a personal letter file. The superintendent is also accessible from the outer office. A glazed partition on one side of the inner office and doors with glass

FIGURE XIV



OFFICE SUITE
INCLUDING STUDENT'S WORK ROOM
AND PROVIDING MULTIPLE SUPER-
VISION OF ADJACENT CLASSROOM
OR LIBRARY-STUDY HALL.

SCALE 0 1 2 3 4 5

panels on the other make it possible for the superintendent to supervise activities in adjacent areas, and, at the same time, insure the privacy of any conversations he may hold within the inner office. It is suggested that the library-study hall may be placed beyond the glass partition of the inner office and that the superintendent or principal may thus supervise activities in that room when he is in the office and when only a few pupils are in the library-study hall. Such a possibility will eliminate the necessity of keeping a teacher in the library-study hall when there are few students present. The students' workroom, which will also serve excellently as a meeting place for the schoolboard, has a large library table, an equipment table near the outside window, and a supply window opening into the secretary's office. The bookroom is placed in a convenient position but is out of the way of most activities. This is desirable since it will be used a relatively small number of times as compared with the other parts of the office suite. One additional feature of the suite is a door whereby the superintendent may leave his office thru the library-study hall without having to pass thru the outer office.

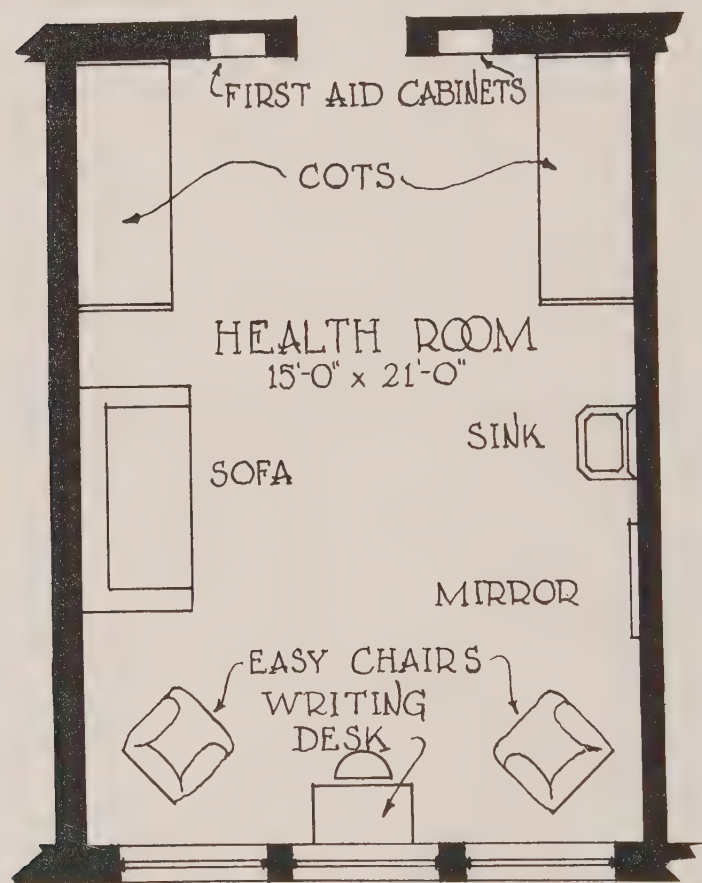
Health and teachers' room—A combination of the teacher rest room and the health and first-aid room is illustrated in Figure XV. The provision of a writing desk, easy chairs, a mirror, a sink, and a sofa make the room suitable for the teachers. The provision of two cots make it possible to use the room for pupils who have become ill or have been injured and require first aid. First-aid cabinets are placed near the door. The use of the entire room for health examinations is, of course, entirely feasible and, since this occurs infrequently, it seems justifiable to expect that the room may be dispensed with as a teachers' room during those few times and also when the room is occupied by a child who is ill or injured, thus making possible the combination of functions here suggested. This room requires one-half a classroom unit, and it may be located at practically any place in the building that is convenient to the largest number of teachers and pupils who will be using it.

Modernization and Maintenance Programs

While a considerable part of the preceding discussion has been designed to guide the superintendent with new construction, it also has value in a program of modernization. It is desirable, at this

point, however, to analyze briefly the steps to be taken in remodeling existing facilities. The discussion both of new construction and modernization of old buildings would be incomplete without brief attention to some of the problems of maintenance. The next section will touch upon some of the important aspects of these two areas.

FIGURE XV



HEALTH & TEACHER'S ROOM

SCALE



Modernization and Remodeling

The small community is frequently faced with the problem of remodeling a building to provide educational facilities at a different school level. In the majority of cases this has meant the changing of an existing grade and high-school building to serve as a grade school coincident with the construction of a new high-school building or the construction of a new wing devoted to secondary-education purposes. While this has been the general practice, there is doubt whether it is the best practice. There is no apparent reason why the old building could not just as efficiently be remodeled to serve the needs of the secondary program. Unfortunately, it is difficult in many cases to so remodel that either the elementary or secondary program is provided for properly.

Much of the planning for school building remodeling is a problem of architectural planning. Often it is no more than the application of the plans previously discussed in the section on the construction of new school buildings. When the old building presents no structural handicaps to the application of such plans, the changes required may readily be made. As a result, many superintendents have taken advantage of the need for modernization of their school plant to incorporate one or more of the new ideas in the building field into these plans.¹⁹ Among the examples sent to the Commission by superintendents were the following:

(1) Equipping a standard classroom as an art room, making an inadequate library room over into an office, equipping a traditional study hall so that it serves as a library-study hall, and removing partitions between classrooms to provide larger classroom units for use in homemaking.

(2) Rearrangement of classrooms, the provision of cloakrooms, changes of lighting from bilateral to unilateral, and the installation of modern heating and ventilation.

(3) Division of an auditorium by means of a glass partition into a library and study hall with conference rooms occupying the space previously utilized by the stage.

(4) Remodeling of a study hall into library-study hall, combination of basement rooms into one large room, provision of portable stage and stage equipment, and remodeling previous library rooms into school office.

(5) Enlargement of windows to meet adequate lighting standards.²⁰

¹⁹ A fundamental consideration in any program of remodeling are the provisions made for safety. See such publications by the National Board of Fire Underwriters as the following: *Construction of School Buildings and Improvement of Existing Structures*, 1937, 22 p.; and *Fire Prevention and Protection as Applied to Public and Parochial Schools*, 1935, 21 p. (Address nearest office either in New York, Chicago, or San Francisco.)

²⁰ Among the superintendents providing brief descriptions of their activities were: George E. Green, Duxbury, Mass.; A. Halvorson, Halstad, Minn.; P. R. Jones, Palmyra, N. J.; Normal J. Lasher, Seymour, Ind.; and E. Raymond Schneible, Sag Harbor, N. Y.

The above list is but the briefest indication of what has been done in various small school systems in the matter of remodeling. The list is inclusive enough to indicate that it is a matter with great possibilities and one for which the plans must be evolved in an orderly manner.

As in the case of the construction of a new building, the superintendent has a large responsibility. The procedure he should follow has been reduced to the comprehensive list of steps which follows:

Step 1. Study: Make a complete study of the best modern school building standards available.

Step 2. Survey: Survey the entire school plant with the aid of blueprints and with the help of specialists, if possible. A separate survey manual (for example: *Survey Field Book for the Analysis of a High School Building* by N. L. Engelhardt) should be used for recording the data on each building.

Step 3. Score plant: After all the data have been collected, score each plant separately, using the most up-to-date standards that can be found.

Step 4. List the modernization needs: If the findings reveal that modernization is feasible, make a complete list of all modernization needs. Study each need carefully.

Step 5. Classify needs: Arrange the needs that were disclosed in Step 4, into emergency, imperative, desirable, and not feasible. Show how each step toward modernization may be effected, giving the estimated cost for each where possible. Investigate the possibility of government aid.

Step 6. Report to the board: Make a complete report of Step 5 to the board of education.

Step 7. Effect modernization: After the budget for modernization has been determined, set out to effect all modernization items allowed.

Step 8. Records: Keep a detailed record of all modernization effected.

Step 9. Report accomplishments: Periodically make a report to the board of education of all modernization effected, to be effected, and not completed.

Step 10. Continue and repeat: Continue the modernization program by completing modernization already planned and by planning for additional modernization, using in the main the steps previously listed.²¹

While remodeling of the school building ordinarily calls for completion of the tentative plans in a comparatively short time, it is frequently true that modernization may be carried on over a period of years. In fact, modernization, as the arrangement of the needs in

²¹ Taken from an unpublished master's thesis entitled *A Modernization Program for the Scotia Consolidated School Plant*, by Henry C. Ebmeier, Department of School Administration, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr. 1938.

Step 5 above would indicate, may be considered as an almost continuous process. The ever changing educational needs of the small community, the periodic development of new and changed standards, and the natural tendency for a building to become obsolete if it is allowed to remain in the form in which it was originally constructed, all combine to emphasize the desirability of such a program in every small school system. Any school building which has been built in conformity with presentday ideas of flexibility will lend itself readily to either remodeling or modernization. Inflexible buildings present a more serious problem.

Maintenance

The acquisition of the buildings and equipment necessary for a modern educational program is properly of first concern. Next in importance is the employment of personnel and the utilization of technics which will guarantee that the school facilities will be used and cared for properly. Suggestions along this line will be found in the publications of state departments of education such as *Schoolhouse Planning and Construction*, and *Rules and Regulations for Public School Building Construction*.²² Detailed treatment of the general problems of maintenance are found in *School Building Management; The Operation and Care of School Plants*²³ and in *A Handbook for School Custodians*.²⁴

The key to the maintenance problem appears to be the location of trained men. In small communities there are two practical answers to this problem: (a) to provide in-service training of personnel, possibly with the aid of state departments of education as has been done in Missouri, or in cooperation with colleges as has been done in Nebraska, Oklahoma, North Dakota, and Illinois;²⁵ and (b) to unite several school systems within a county for the purpose of employing skilled workmen capable of training and guiding less skilled employees.²⁶

²² Missouri State Department of Education. *Schoolhouse Planning and Construction*. Bulletin No. 2. Jefferson City: the Department, 1933. 116 p. ¶ Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. *Rules and Regulations for Public School Building Construction*. Harrisburg: the Department, 1931. 43 p.

²³ Reeves, Charles E., and Ganders, Harry H. *School Building Management; The Operation and Care of School Plants*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1928. 395 p.

²⁴ Broady, Knute O., and others. *A Handbook for School Custodians*. Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska, 1934. 83 p.

²⁵ See: Viles, N. E. "Training School Janitors and Maintenance Men on a Statewide Basis." *Proceedings, 1936. National Council on Schoolhouse Planning, 1936*. p. 32-36. (Address R. L. Hamon, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.)

²⁶ Calhoun, J. B. "The County School Mechanic." *Proceedings, 1936. National Council on Schoolhouse Planning, 1936*. p. 72-74.

Future Trends

A connected view of the probable future trends in small school building construction seems desirable. It should be remembered, however, that some of the trends suggested are more clearly foreseen than others and consequently carry more weight. Hence, the picture which is presented is only a probable one and must not be considered a final pattern. It is, of course, impossible to predict even a few years into the future with a high degree of accuracy because new developments tend to change these apparent trends. With that qualification in mind it may be stated that the future of building trends in small communities seems to be in the following directions:

(1) *A higher ratio of floor space per pupil to permit numerous and varied activities to be carried on within the school.* There is a clearly discernible movement in the direction of providing for more non-recitation activities both within and without the classroom.

(2) *More multiple supervisory devices to permit indirect supervision of these several activities.* Direct teacher supervision of every activity participated in by the pupils is being replaced in many instances by indirect supervision.

(3) *More accessory and storage rooms in order to provide adequately for the larger number of non-recitation activities.*

(4) *The planning of more twelve-grade school buildings rather than separate grade and high-school buildings.* Since an individual's contacts in life include association with individuals at varying levels of achievement and age, school contacts should also include contacts at different grade levels.

(5) *Less planning for the teaching of specialized vocational subjects in the school building, especially where instruction on the job may be achieved by community cooperation.* Extension of the George-Deen Act to small schools in general may mean an increasing utilization of community facilities for educational purposes in the vocational fields.

(6) *Definite planning for community use of the building, especially at hours other than traditional school hours.*

(7) *Provision of adequate office space and filing equipment for a comprehensive guidance program.* Consult Chapters III and IV of this yearbook.

(8) *Definite planning for use of supervised correspondence study.* Supervised correspondence study courses now in use seldom call for much if any building specialization. However, in some of the less densely populated states, it probably will be found advantageous to make specific provisions in school building plans for this type of activity. (See Chapter VII.)

(9) *Provision for housing of transportation facilities used by the school.*

(10) *More adequate housing of teachers in small communities.* One of the factors which makes it most difficult for small schools to obtain better trained teachers is the inability of such teachers to secure satisfactory accommodations in small localities. The problem of teacher housing is receiving attention as a part of school building planning.

(11) *Construction of less costly buildings, even if these buildings may be shorter lived.* If investigations prove that buildings lasting a shorter time but costing a smaller amount are more desirable, there will be good reason for incorporating such discoveries into school building technic.

(12) *Utilization of building materials natural to or produced in the region.*

One of the chief values of the above list lies in the possibility and desirability of considering these probable future trends whenever the construction of a new building or the remodeling of an older one is under consideration. A second value anticipated is the encouragement and direction it may give to future research in the small school building field.

The application in the planning of small school buildings of the principles developed in the preceding pages—principles which recognize the unique problems faced in such schools—will result in more effective teaching and consequently more acceptable learning results. It is a truism that the school building exists for the sake of the pupils. Wise application of the principle of flexibility will insure a building which will permit all but the most radical changes in schoolhouse construction at comparatively small additional expense. Adherence to the principle of providing for multiple use of space units will make possible a varied and flexible program of activities at all grade levels of the school, while the buildings in which the maximum degree of multiple supervision desirable in the given situation is achieved will make possible the successful administration of the educational program.

CHAPTER IX

Reorganizing the Administrative Structure

THE SCHOOL consolidation movement is not new. Over one hundred years ago, Horace Mann, then state commissioner of education in Massachusetts, advocated consolidation. He succeeded in having the one-teacher school districts abolished, but the one-teacher schools remain. A few years later in New York, evidence was presented to the legislature to show that one-room and village schools were disappearing and should be abolished by law. Yet it is only in very recent years that such schools have begun to disappear at an appreciable rate. This early demand for consolidation by educational leaders accompanied by slow progress toward its realization is characteristic of the United States as a whole. The educational leaders have long advocated school consolidation as a means of more efficiently providing an adequate educational program, while the voters, within whose hands the final decision must rest, have resisted this change and until the last ten years usually blocked it. Thus thru American history the issue has been drawn. On one hand were those who looked primarily at the problem of efficiently providing buildings, equipment, books, qualified teachers, special educational services, and trained leaders, and on the other hand were those who wished to retain immediate control over their own schools as a part of their local neighborhood or village life and to maintain it on simple lines in which each parent and citizen could participate.

The impact of this irresistible force of consolidation and this immovable object of resistance to consolidation has usually resulted in makeshift compromises rather than a fundamental attack on the problem of reorganizing school systems to meet changing educational needs. Thru amendments to existing laws or the creation of special school districts a clumsy, cumbersome structure has evolved; a structure which neither insures the effective operation of local control nor permits the efficient provision of the educational program.

In a few states a more basic reorganization has been worked out, but along such narrow lines that most effective results cannot be expected. Some states have attempted reorganization without attention to a sound financial structure for school support. For example,

they attempt to set up a complete educational program which must depend almost entirely upon real estate taxes despite the fact that the amount of real estate possessed is no longer a measure of an individual's ability to pay taxes. Some states have hoped to solve their problems by centralizing authority over public education in the hands of the state, others by the creation of a county unit, and still others thru reorganization of the local district alone. Obviously, no single method or approach can solve the whole problem. A fundamental consideration of all aspects of the administrative structure, from state department thru county organization to local district, is essential.¹

Then it must also be admitted that many attempts made to consolidate schools have been unsound. Many unfortunate consolidations have had an important influence in slowing up or blocking the consolidation movement. Thruout the United States consolidations may be found which failed to realize their potentialities because children of nearby but poorer districts were left out; the new capital outlay for buildings and grounds exhausted the financial resources of the district and cramped current expenditures; the system of school support was unsound; a broader curriculum was not introduced; a decreasing population accompanied by decreasing financial resources was not taken into account; the attendance unit did not conform to the natural sociological community; no adequate provision was made for pupil transportation; the overhead expense for administration was excessive; or no provision was made for a larger local administrative unit, such as the county. These weaknesses in past consolidations are not only responsible for much of the opposition to the reorganization of school districts but also emphasize the importance of a broad, well-considered approach to the whole problem. An approach is needed which is based on a thoro consideration of all the factors involved and on all the implications of any change in organization not only to the educational program but also to the structure of the democratic society in which the school operates.

Such an approach must recognize at the outset that there are two broad avenues thru which a more effective educational program can be developed in rural areas. One is thru improvement of the educa-

¹ Alves, E. L.; Anderson, A. W.; and Fowlkes, John G. *A Study of Local School Unit Organization in Ten States*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1938, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939. (In press.) ¶ Alves, E. L., and Morphet, H. F. *Principles and Procedures in the Organization of School Units*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1938, No. 11. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1939. (In press.)

tional program within the framework of the present administrative structure. This has to do with such problems as redirecting and broadening the curriculum, improving the teaching process, and developing more effective school-community relationships. The second avenue is thru reorganization of the basic administrative structure to fit the changed social structure of our modern communities and to provide the administrative framework within which a modern educational program can be developed and maintained. The first corresponds to arranging and finishing off the interior of a skyscraper to meet the needs of its occupants; the second, to erecting the steel framework which supports the skyscraper. Chapters V, VI, and VII of this yearbook deal with the first group of problems. This chapter is concerned with the second.

Factors Affecting Reorganization of School District Structure

Before a sound program for attacking the problem of school district reorganization can be considered, it is necessary to examine some of the most important factors and trends responsible for this pressing problem. Altho the problem of district reorganization has long been before the American people, the pressure for a solution has become increasingly acute in recent years. This is evident from the fact that practically every state legislature in the last six years has had before it proposals for district reorganization. The increasing pressure for reorganization is due to two factors: (a) the increasing demands upon the school for more and better education; and (b) the changing social and economic structure of our smaller communities which have outgrown the common school districts adapted to a pioneer age.

Increased Demand for Education

One of the most impressive evidences of the increased demand for education is the rapid growth of the public high school during the first quarter of the present century.² The weight of supporting and administering this high-school program proved too great for the original common school districts set up to provide for elementary schools alone. The result has been all sorts of makeshifts to provide for this larger program. In many cases a superimposed district organization was set up to support and administer the high school.

² For further discussion of this point see Chapter I.



*Selling shoes and gingham,
Flour and bacon, overalls, clothing, all day long
For fourteen hours a day for three hundred and thirteen days
For more than twenty years.
Saying "Yes'm" and "Yes, sir" and "Thank you"
A thousand times a day.—Edgar Lee Masters.*

*Photograph by
Ewing Galloway*

This resulted in a dual school system of elementary and secondary education accompanied by a clumsy and uneconomical organization, a wider gap between elementary and high school, lack of coordination, and even antagonism between the two organizations serving the same area. For example, two separate school systems are often found in communities of even fewer than 1000 population. Any type of district organization which separates the elementary and high schools is particularly vicious. It is not only inefficient in operation, but creates a gap between the elementary- and high-school years which seriously interferes with the quality of the curriculum. In small communities the elementary and secondary grades should be considered one unit—a *twelve-year school*. The adoption of the concept of a twelve-year school operating as a unit will do much to create the type of school needed to effectively serve community needs.

Another arrangement to provide for a high-school education has been the payment of tuition by elementary-school districts to the nearest high-school district. The situation found in states depending upon non-resident tuition to meet the problem of providing high schools is well illustrated by a recent study of Michigan.³ Figure XVI shows that only 22 percent of the land area of Michigan is within high-school districts. In other words, the children from 78 percent of the area of the state must go outside of their school district to obtain a high-school education. This situation is characteristic of the United States as a whole. Fewer than ten states have all their area within high-school districts and, even in these, some provision for non-resident tuition is necessary because of the way in which the high-school district boundary lines are drawn.

The situation has often resulted in indifference on the part of high schools to the needs of children in "sending" districts and in the failure of the farm youth to reach high school. Such indifference has meant both that many farm youth were not brought into contact with high school, and also that the high-school curriculum was not adapted to their needs. Another vicious result of non-resident tuition has been the overzealous attempts to attract farm youth to high school in order to supplement the local budget with their tuition. This has often resulted in strong competition between districts. Thus two high-school districts compete for the pupils of a common-school

³ Thaden, J. F., and Mumford, Eben. *High School Communities in Michigan*. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State College. 1938. 36 p. .



From High School Communities in Michigan, J. F. Thaden and Eben Mumford, Michigan State College, Lansing, Mich., 1938. p. 11.

FIGURE XVI.—AREA OF MICHIGAN ORGANIZED AS TWELVE AND LESS THAN TWELVE-GRADE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

district by attempting to outdo each other in offering inducements. For example, one school will attempt to attract pupils from another by purchasing luxurious equipment for its school buses, or by scheduling its buses past a competing school.⁴ Such competition is not only questionable from the standpoint of the pupil's welfare but is uneconomical and a violation of the principle that each high school should serve a natural sociological community. At best, the tuition pupil is an "outsider" and the residents of his district are taxed to support a school over whose control they have no voice. Thus many of the small high-school districts are as ill-adapted to the structure of the modern community as the original common school districts.

The original school district structure is overburdened in another way. Its pioneer designers set it up to provide a school for teaching the bare essentials of reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling. Today the school is expected to prepare its pupils for citizenship. This means that in addition to the drill subjects there is a general demand for a broader curriculum including such offerings as social studies, music, art, health, science, and recreation and health services.

These increasing demands for education by the public have created an educational program which the original pioneer school districts were not designed to provide. Expecting them to carry this load is like expecting a team and wagon to do the work of a ten-ton truck. They cannot efficiently provide either the educational leadership or the trained specialists necessary. The increased demand for education can be met only where an administrative structure is set up which is capable of providing the program demanded.

Social and Economic Factors

This increase in the educational load is only one reason for the breakdown of our school district structure in the smaller systems. Equally important are the social and economic changes in American life which have not only increased the educational program but changed the social structure of the community in which the school must operate.

While American cities were growing larger and thus enlarging the school district as the educational load increased, rural America was changing also. Good roads and automobiles, motor trucks and

⁴ The wasteful overlapping of transportation routes is shown graphically by the map on page 85 of *Education for American Life*, Report of the Regents' Inquiry, which presents a typical situation in New York State.

tractors, mass production and modern agricultural machinery, telephones and electric power, rural free delivery, and radio have transformed the isolated farms, small open-country neighborhoods, and even towns and villages from isolated self-contained units into broader, more homogeneous communities. More human contacts have developed. Old ways of living have been modified or abandoned. Life is becoming broader and more complex. Slow, arduous travel afoot or by horse over bad roads has been replaced by the easy, swift travel over the highway and even by airplane. At the same time, telephone and rural free delivery provide new means of communication and modern inventions relieve much of the drudgery and hardship of farm and store.⁵

These forces have changed the social structure of rural communities while similar changes have not taken place in the administrative structure of the public schools. Probably the two changes which most affect the type of school district needed are (a) the integration of the village, town, or small city with its contiguous open-country trade area, and (b) the increasing cooperation between formerly isolated towns and villages in the achievement of joint enterprises.

The Village-Centered Community

The old Chinese wall of isolation around each town or village which once set it apart from those living in the adjacent open country has largely disappeared. Where the farmer of yesterday made only occasional trips to town to trade and confined his social activities largely to his own neighborhood, today with automobile and telephone he is closer to the town's activities than many of the townspeople themselves who lack such services. In addition to a place to trade the farmer is looking more and more to the town for the activities which constitute his social life thru such organizations as the church, lodges, and community clubs.

The old school district boundaries are being crossed every day by those seeking stores, shops, garages, banks, churches, medical service, and entertainment. While communities were reshaping and extending their horizons, the school district boundaries remained almost static. Grant Wood, Iowa artist, symbolized this situation in a painting of a lone one-teacher school perched perilously at the top of a deep cut in the hill while heavy traffic along the new highway

⁵ These forces are treated in detail in Chapter I.

passed heedlessly by beneath. This situation can be corrected only when modern school attendance areas are laid out which conform to the boundaries of the modern community just as the original districts conformed to the boundaries of the pioneer community. But this alone will not solve the problem.

While those living within individual communities have found themselves brought closer together and their interdependence increased, a similar development has taken place between communities. The ease with which communication may be carried on between nearby towns has developed a wide variety of activities carried on by joint action. A group of schools unite for professional teachers meetings; to employ a supervisor or special teachers in music, art, physical education, and agriculture; to provide health services; to provide library services; even to hold football banquets and carry on recreational activities. In every state there is some form of a unit which provides educational leadership for groups of small attendance units. In most states it is the county superintendent's office. In one state it is the parish, and in another the region served by a single deputy state superintendent, while in New England it is called the supervisory union. An important development is found in the New England states where a group of towns (townships) voluntarily unite to employ professional administrative and supervisory leadership. By serving a group of attendance units, the necessary leadership can be provided more effectively and economically than by each local school working alone. It makes possible the provision of services which would otherwise be impossible without making the attendance unit larger than the size of the natural sociological community would justify. On the other hand, the staff of this unit is in intimate contact with its schools and can shape educational policies and methods to local needs in a way that would be impossible from one central state office. A larger administrative unit which includes a group of attendance units is then necessary if the administrative structure of the school is to fit the social structure of modern rural America. While some form of this larger administrative unit exists in all states its development has been largely fortuitous rather than the result of careful planning. It has been tolerated rather than allotted the place in the administrative structure that it is particularly adapted to fill. Now with the increasing of human contacts and the interdependence of communities this larger local administrative

unit composed of a group of attendance units is destined to take an increasingly important place in the administrative structure. Its place in the administrative structure is defined on pages 229-30.

Sparsity of Population

Another important social factor in its implications for school district reorganization is the greater sparsity of population which provides the basic difference between larger and smaller communities. The degree of sparsity depends primarily upon the natural resources available, geographical location, climate, or topography. The greater the sparsity of population the fewer the number and variety of human contacts, the greater the distance to schools and other social institutions, and the smaller the groups which can be assembled for educational purposes. The fewer the human contacts the greater the importance of the natural environment in the life of the individual.

Statistical studies show a high negative correlation between size of school (both high school and one teacher) and sparsity of population. This means that in planning the size of school for rural areas, the sparsity of population must be taken into account. Likewise there is a high positive correlation between sparsity of population and need for pupil transportation. It is clear that any standards with regard to the proper size of either attendance unit or administrative unit must be modified according to the sparsity of population. Until this is done great care must be used in setting up any one standard as the most desirable size for a school. Where population is sparse the size of a single unit will tend to increase in area and decrease in population. The wide variations in sparsity of population thruout the United States and within individual states emphasize the importance of adjusting to this factor. Variations are found even in rural population between different crop areas. The density of population for Salem County, New Jersey, a fruit and trucking region, is 107.4 persons per square mile; in Walworth County, Wisconsin, a dairying district, 55.5; in Pocahontas County, Iowa, in the corn belt, 27.2; in McKenzie County, North Dakota, dry farming, 3.4; and in mountainous Beaverhead County, Montana, with stockraising, 1.2 persons per square mile.⁶ These variations illustrate the range which must be considered in setting up an effective administrative structure.

⁶ Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. p. 206-207.

Population Migrations

A factor which has an important bearing is the migration between farm and city. This migration has resulted in a larger proportion of children in the rural population. This not only results in a heavier educational burden per adult, but imposes upon the small school the dual task of training youth for life both in rural areas and in cities. In addition, it means in many localities the necessity for a school system adapted to a decreasing population. It also means that large populations change from one community to another as supporting economic resources shift. The small district system, whether supporting a one-teacher or village school, does not possess the flexibility to meet this situation. One evidence is the large and increasing number of one-teacher schools in the various states which have been reduced in size to ten pupils or fewer. The Illinois State Department of Public Instruction reports 3323 one-teacher districts with an average daily attendance of fewer than ten pupils. This large group of small, uneconomical schools has increased thruout the states maintaining the small district system as a result of population losses sustained thru rural-urban migration.

The administrative structure must be strong enough to adapt to the dual needs of youth who will remain in rural communities and those who will migrate to the city. It must also be flexible enough to adjust to either an increasing or decreasing population and to changing community boundaries. For example, road conditions are an important factor in determining the structure of a rural community and as roads are improved the effects of low sparsity of population tend to be modified.

A study of these social and economic factors reveals their importance in the determination of the type of administrative structure adapted to the needs of the rural community. The administrative structure must be constructed to meet the needs and fit the social structure of the small community. A type of organization adapted to serve in large metropolitan centers cannot be bodily superimposed on a group of smaller communities with any expectation of success.

Principles for the Reorganization of Administrative Structure

In planning a new house, agreement must be reached on certain basic points before the plans can be drawn. Before considering the

actual process by which the administrative structure can be reorganized within a state, it is necessary to set up certain principles or guides by which to work. Such guides must be carefully formulated in terms of the situation in each state. There are, however, basic considerations common to all states which are presented here.

Social and Economic Factors

Careful consideration must be given to those social and economic factors pertinent to the organization of the administrative structure. It is important both that the public schools be adapted to the needs of the community and that their administrative structure be in harmony with the whole social structure, as presented in the foregoing discussion.

The Educational Program Desired

A sound administrative organization can therefore be set up only in terms of the educational program for which it is responsible. Administration is only a means to an end, not an end in itself. A school district which efficiently provides for teaching only the three R's in an elementary school might be wholly inadequate in providing a twelve-year educational program which includes music, art, and health services. It is therefore necessary to determine the kind of educational program desired. This must be done in order to place before all concerned the educational returns to be realized by reorganization, and to provide a means of determining the extent to which reorganization is necessary to secure the ends desired.

There are two aspects to the process of formulating this educational platform. One is the preparation of the most effective statement possible by the research staff. The other is the thoro discussion of this statement by both lay and professional groups, and the interpretations and revisions necessary to make it an accurate expression of the desires of the citizens to be served. The Missouri county surveys of 1933 used a statement of Carpenter's to show what was considered a desirable educational program. Following is a statement of the functions of the public school system in a midwestern state as prepared by Bell to show the type of educational program that a reorganization of school districts should make possible.

Functions of the Public School System

- (1) It is a function of the public schools in Nebraska to provide schools suited to a democratic society:

- a. Giving all children an opportunity thru the school to explore, develop, and test their interests and abilities.
 - b. Making the schools an actual part of the community, participating in its problems, ideals, and enterprises.
 - c. Devotion to the welfare and development of the individual child.
 - d. Providing school groups in which the pupils can enjoy desirable social experience.
 - e. Application of democratic procedures with competent leadership.
 - f. Providing for the knowledge of those skills and technics commonly called tool subjects.
- (2) It is the function of the schools provided by the state to render the following services:
- a. Instruction by teachers adequately prepared for their work as professional educators.
 - b. Adequate health education services for all pupils.
 - c. Guidance and assistance in meeting educational, leisure, vocational, and social problems.
 - d. Vocational opportunities in the way of exploratory experiences, information, and training in the special fields.
- (3) The public school system of the state should assure for every child the following external provisions:
- a. A school term of not less than nine months.
 - b. A school offering work at least from kindergarten thru the twelfth grade.
 - c. Transportation for the physically handicapped, regardless of the distance.
 - d. Transportation for all pupils living beyond a reasonable walking distance.
 - e. Adequate books, supplies, materials, and equipment for instruction in a modern educational program.
 - f. Attractive and functional school buildings that give maximum protection to health and safety.
 - g. School located in an environment representative of the best in the community.
 - h. Schools assured of adequate financial support.⁷

Democratic Administration

Primary control of a school should reside in the hands of the group served. Democratic operation of the schools was attained in pioneer days thru the participation of citizens, potentially at least, in the actual operation of the schools. With the increasing complexity of community life growing out of changed social and economic conditions, these original simple relationships no longer function effectively and many of the methods and procedures which originally made for democratic operation are no longer effective. The most sig-

⁷ Bell, Millard D. *A Plan for the Reorganization of the Administrative Units for the Schools of Nebraska*. Unpublished graduate project report. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

nificant change in this situation is the increased scope and complexity of the educational program itself. This has reduced the extent to which the untrained layman can actually participate in carrying out the educational process and therefore has increased the necessity for procedures thru which the layman can insure that the educational program is directed toward the ends he desires. Just as sparsity of population increases the simplicity of the community and school to be served, so it also affects the opportunity for actual administrative participation by each individual layman. However, in most communities sociological changes have decreased interest in participation in the school's program and the processes by which democracy has functioned. Proper reorganization is necessary to the preservation of effective democratic operation.

Democratic administration may be measured in terms of three criteria:

Local participation—Parents and laymen must have some active part in the growth and development of the school. Democracy cannot flourish unless the individual citizen has an opportunity to exercise his rights and to assume his responsibilities as a citizen. It is particularly important, since the school is a chief instrument of democracy, that the school itself operate democratically and provide adults with the opportunity for exercising their rights and obligations as citizens and for enjoying the satisfactions pertaining thereto. Participation does not rest alone on legal prerogatives but may be realized thru informal contacts of parents and teachers and thru such organizations as the parent-teacher association. The values of democratic participation accrue primarily to those who participate. The values of the two following essentials—local control and local initiative—accrue to the school itself.

Local initiative—Opportunity must be given for the locality to initiate new developments in the educational program and to enrich it beyond the minimum requirements mandated by the state. While the welfare of the state as a whole requires that it compel all localities to maintain education up to a minimum quality, each locality must be kept free to go beyond this minimum if it so desires. Restraint in this respect centralizes control, retards growth, and tends to "freeze" the educational program into a static condition.

Local control—Democratic operation requires a certain degree of control by the locality served. While the state must retain the right to maintain and enforce a minimum program of education which will guarantee the minimum training necessary to preserve intelligent citizenship, it is equally important that a large measure of control be retained by each locality. An administrative structure cannot be considered democratic unless it is based primarily on the assumption that the people are capable and willing to exercise their rights and responsibilities of sovereignty.

The people legally exercise democratic control over education thru the election of representatives, thru general referendums, thru meetings of the qualified voters of the district, and by petition. This control is exercised thru the government machinery of both the state as a whole and its subdivisions. The administrative structure cannot be considered in harmony with this principle of democratic control unless the state leaves large discretionary powers to the localities—both administrative and attendance units. Local participation limited to presentations to, and pressure on, the central state control cannot fulfil the requirements of this criterion. It must include an opportunity to share the responsibilities and the consequences of exercising discretionary power.

Preservation of democratic control requires that this ideal be preserved thru the development of new methods and technics adapted to the operation of the democratic processes in the modern situation. The development of effective processes for the preservation of democratic control must include provision for local participation, local initiative, and local control.

Efficiency and Economy of Operation

The administrative organization must be capable of efficient operation in the provision of an adequate educational program adapted to local needs. This principle requires the efficient provision of the desired program in terms of the structure and needs of the local community and its children. Local adaptation requires an attendance unit growing out of the local environment. At the same time there must be a coordination of these units into larger administrative units which can carry on for a group of attendance units those services which can be more efficiently provided over a larger area and to a larger group.

Professional Leadership

The administrative structure must be so set up as to secure and maintain effective professional and educational leadership. The complexity of the modern educational program requires the services of trained professional leadership, to provide both democratic control and efficient management. Only thru such leadership can the educational desires of the people be translated into an educational program, and this program be efficiently maintained and operated. The administrative structure must be able not only to finance such

leadership without undue burden, but also to challenge it with a situation which will insure continuous professional development and growth adequate to bring out the potentialities of the leader.

Relation of School Districts to Civil Units

The boundaries of both administrative and attendance units should follow natural community lines and depart from the boundaries of political subdivisions when necessary to do so. The boundaries of political units, township, county, and municipality, were laid out by surveyors' instruments with little regard for the location of natural resources and no regard for the sites of future population. As a result there is often little relationship between such boundaries and the boundaries of the natural communities which have since developed. Since the boundaries of attendance units must coincide with those of natural communities, and since the boundaries of the administrative unit are determined by its component attendance units, the boundaries of both will necessarily depart from those of the political units serving the same area. Equally important is the independence of the educational organization from the political subdivision in the exercise of discretionary powers over its budget and curriculum. Only in the carrying out of routine duties such as assessments, levies, and tax collections should the school district be dependent upon the political government.

Transportation of Pupils

All pupils beyond a reasonable walking distance to school should be transported at public expense. Modern transportation has become an integral part of our social fabric. Integration of the school with the social structure requires the provision of pupil transportation. The degree to which pupil transportation should be developed will depend in a large measure upon the degree to which the structure and life of a community depend upon other types of modern transportation. For further discussion of this problem refer to Chapter X.

The Attendance Unit

An attendance unit is the group residing in an area served by a single school. Its boundaries should conform to those of the natural sociological community. Usually this will be a town or village with its surrounding trade area. In isolated sections it may be a small village alone or an open-country, one-teacher school. In no case

should it be so large that any pupil must spend more than two hours a day going to and from school. The distance which pupils may travel will depend upon age and travel conditions.

At the present time local school districts serve single attendance units. In most states these areas are smaller than the natural sociological community, and are unable to provide the services demanded of a modern school. Usually too, they are assigned all the functions of administration even tho they are too small to perform many of them effectively. On the other hand, in states with the county unit, such as Maryland, the attendance unit is denied the right of performing any administrative functions.

The functions of the attendance unit should include all those not specifically assigned to the administrative unit or state education department, in the same manner that all the rights and functions of government not specifically assigned to the federal government by its Constitution belong to the several states. The functions left to the attendance unit will depend somewhat on its ability to perform them. Obviously, an attendance unit for a small one-teacher district will not be able to perform all the functions which properly belong to a large twelve-year school system. Using the twelve-year school as typical, following are the types of functions which should be legally allocated to it: (a) adaptation of the curriculum to local community needs; (b) provision of the close personal relationship between school, pupils, and community which is necessary for an effective program; (c) provision of financial support in addition to the basic program supported by the county; (d) appointment of the local staff on recommendation of the administrative unit; (e) cooperation with the administrative unit in carrying into effect its educational policies; (f) cooperation with the administrative unit in the most effective use of its services; (g) recommendation of annual budget to the administrative unit; and (h) exercise of control over all matters not specifically assigned elsewhere.

The Administrative Unit

The administrative unit is composed of a group of contiguous attendance units of sufficient homogeneity to carry on together the services and responsibilities assigned to it.

The most common example of this type of unit is the county. Other types are the parish, the supervisory union of New England, and the

district true administrative units. They vary from those of one extreme which usurp the functions of the attendance unit to those of the other extreme which have so few functions that existence in their present form is scarcely justifiable.

The administrative unit must be large enough to efficiently and economically discharge those functions for which the attendance unit is too small and the state too large. It should be controlled by a non-partisan lay board of education elected by the public, and should provide for a professional staff headed by a well-trained executive. In addition to being sufficiently large to command the services of a trained executive, the administrative unit should provide for supervision, special circuit teachers, nurses, and librarians. It should be able to provide the functions of business management, pupil transportation, and school attendance service, which operate more effectively over a larger unit. In addition to these services the administrative unit should supplement the state foundation program of finance, assume primary responsibility for the building program, formulate general educational policies including curriculum for the area, determine boundaries of attendance units, select the staff of the administrative unit, recommend personnel for the attendance area, and hear appeals from the decisions of the attendance units on certain questions.

Financial Support

The administrative structure should be based on an adequate program of state support. While the local administrative units should be set up so as to eliminate the worst inequalities between communities in their ability to support education, any sound financial program which approaches equality of school support requires an adequate state fund for education distributed on the principle of equalization. For further details on this point refer to Chapters XIV, XV, XVI, and XVII.

The Process of Reorganization ⁸

The preceding discussion has been concerned with the administrative structure itself. It is now necessary to consider briefly the process by which a fundamental reorganization can be effected.

In this process there are three possible procedures: (a) the state may set up its financial system first; (b) it may reorganize its

⁸ For a more detailed treatment of this problem see the Regents' Inquiry cited in footnote 4 of the present chapter.

financial and administrative systems simultaneously; or (c) it may reorganize the administrative structure first. Each of these procedures has been followed, depending on local conditions, and no one can be considered as paramount to the exclusion of the others.

This process of reorganization includes: (a) study of the pertinent social and economic forces; (b) study of the present school system; and (c) formulation of guiding principles for setting up attendance units, administrative units, and the allocation of responsibilities to each. The nature of the work on the first and third points has already been discussed. The second will be considered briefly.

As indicated earlier in the chapter, effective reorganization cannot be attained thru an attack on the problems of either the attendance unit or the administrative unit alone. This overemphasizes the importance of the unit considered and produces a distortion which prevents the development of a well-balanced structure. Attempting to solve the whole problem by consolidation or centralization of attendance units alone tends either to make the attendance unit too large or to impose a top-heavy, uneconomical, administrative structure on units too small for its support. States focusing on creation of the county unit tend to overlook the importance of the attendance units and thus weaken them as the foundation of the administrative structure. In like manner, when reorganization is attempted thru creation of strong central state departments alone, there is danger of neglecting the local units. Any program for reorganizing the administrative structure must therefore give due attention to (a) the attendance unit, (b) the administrative unit, (c) their respective functions, and (d) their relationships to each other and to the central state department.

Another problem is the rapidity with which reorganization should be carried on. In general, the more gradual the process the fewer the maladjustments and the less the waste. On the other hand, it is sometimes easier to secure a group of major changes at once while public attention is focused on the problem. Whether actual change is gradual or abrupt, a period of study of needed reorganization over a period of years is essential in preparation for the change.

This period of study may be carried on by the state education department, a school of education, the state teachers association, the state agricultural college, a special commission appointed for this

purpose, or all these agencies cooperating together.⁹ Studies are needed of the social and economic factors involved and the history of the present school districts. The historical study should trace the types of district organization created by law over a period of years, and should include an attempt to discover the pressures which resulted in passage of these laws. Each type of school district should be clearly set forth showing its organization and functions as provided by law. A study of the development of several typical districts from the time they were organized would also prove helpful.

It is then necessary to make a thoro study of the present school district and county organization. Data are needed on such matters as the curriculum, the guidance program, the present physical plants, total population, school population, enrolment, average daily attendance, location of the school population, trends in total and school population, grade distribution of pupils by present schools, geographical distribution of pupils, location of present school district boundaries and present bus routes, assessed valuations and tax levies, total and unit costs of present program, bonded indebtedness, teaching staff, and length of school term.

An effective state program of reorganization must include three essentials to insure success: (a) a staff of specialists trained in the necessary methods and technics; (b) a policy-making body which is either the state education department or a lay commission responsible for major policies; and (c) a thoro study of the need for reorganization and results desired by the general public.

The work of the staff is to analyze the situation in the light of

⁹ Illustrations of statewide, county, and type surveys are as follows: Dawson, H. A., director, and Little, H. A. *Financial and Administrative Needs of the Public Schools of Arkansas*. Vol. 1. Little Rock, Ark.: Department of Public Instruction, 1930. 100 p. ¶ Arkansas State Department of Education. *Study of Local School Units in Arkansas*. Little Rock: the Department, 1937. 214 p. (Prepared in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.) ¶ California State Department of Education. *Study of Local School Units in California*. Sacramento: the Department, 1937. 137 p. (Prepared in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.) ¶ Wieland, John A. *Study of Local School Units in Illinois*. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1937. 158 p. ¶ The Project Staff, Federal Project O. P. 5-119. *A Study of Local School Units in Kentucky*. Frankfort, Ky.: State Department of Education, 1937. 126 p. ¶ North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction. *Study of Local School Units in North Carolina*. Raleigh: the Department, 1937. 191 p. ¶ Holy, T. C., and McKnight, John A. *Study of Local School Units in Ohio*. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1937. 271 p. (Prepared with the cooperation of the United States Office of Education.) ¶ Holley, J. Andrew, director, and Ramsey, F. A. *Study of Local School Units in Oklahoma*. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Department of Education, 1937. 392 p. (Prepared in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.) ¶ Studebaker, John W., and Ade, Lester K. *Study of Local School Units in Pennsylvania*. Harrisburg, Pa.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1937. 150 p. (Prepared in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.) ¶ Tennessee State Department of Education. *A Study of Local School Units in Tennessee*. Nashville: the Department, 1937. 206 p. (Prepared in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.) ¶ Dawson, H. A., director. *An Administrative Survey of the Public Schools of Mercer County, West Virginia*. Charleston, W. Va.: State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1932. 128 p. ¶ Soper, Wayne W. *Type Studies of Enlarged Units of School Administration in New York State*. Albany, N. Y.: Division of Research, State Education Department, University of the State of New York, 1937. 39 p. (Mimeo.)

accepted principles and to provide the necessary data. The function of the commission is to formulate general policies and recommend needed legislation.

The process of reorganization should be initiated and carried on by the local counties with the aid and cooperation of the state department or commission in charge. Legislation providing for such a survey should make a study of each county mandatory, but should leave to the localities the decision as to whether actual change should be made. This insures attention to the problems of reorganization but leaves the final decision to each locality.

The process of reorganization may be summarized as follows:

- (1) Begin study and discussion of present educational program by citizens of state to formulate educational program desired.

- (2) Legislation to provide machinery and funds for study.

- (3) Assignment of responsibility to state education department or appointment of a lay commission to supervise study, and appointment of trained staff to carry on research.

- (4) Cooperation with county and local school organization in making local surveys.

- (5) Formulation of guiding principles for setting up administrative structure.

- (6) Surveys to secure data.

- (7) Recommendation of new administrative structure by state department or commission in the light of principles formulated and data obtained.

- (8) Enactment of recommendations into law and adoption by local counties of new organization.¹⁰

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¹⁰ For further information on procedures for securing needed data see: U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Handbook of Suggested Procedures for the Reorganization of Local School Units and the Projection of School Building Programs*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1935. ¹¹ Dawson, H. A., director. *An Administrative Survey of the Public Schools of Mercer County, West Virginia*. Charleston, W. Va.: State Department of Education, 1932. 128 p.

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CHAPTER X

Bus Transportation

A STUDY of pupil transportation in small school systems and in rural areas of the United States leads to the rather definite conclusion that no phase of the public school program has been characterized by more rapid development or by more varied and complicated problems. The purposes of this chapter, therefore, are: (a) to give a brief description of the development and present scope of pupil transportation; and (b) to discuss some of the more pertinent problems which confront school administrators who are actively engaged in administering pupil transportation systems.¹

Development of Bus Transportation

Pupil transportation began long before the invention of the motor vehicle. However, in recent years the growth of pupil transportation by motor bus has been so rapid that other forms such as the use of horse-drawn vehicles, trains, and boats have become of relatively less importance. This chapter is therefore primarily concerned with pupil bus transportation. On December 31, 1937, there were 84,061 school buses in the United States. These buses were: (a) transporting 3,225,361 children; (b) traversing 1,017,056 miles of one-way route; (c) serving 34,615 schools; and (d) operating at an annual cost of \$61,032,340. As current investigations indicate that probably not more than 5 percent—and certainly not over 10 percent—of the total number of children transported live in urban areas, it is obvious that pupil transportation is devoted primarily to serving rural children in the smaller school systems.

Without selecting any single state for unfavorable criticism, it may be pointed out that when such factors as ability to pay, total habitable area, and density of school population are considered, the scope of established facilities for pupil transportation in the separate states is decidedly uneven. In other words, some states are forging ahead while other states are lagging behind in their obligations to provide the necessary facilities. Why is it that many predominantly

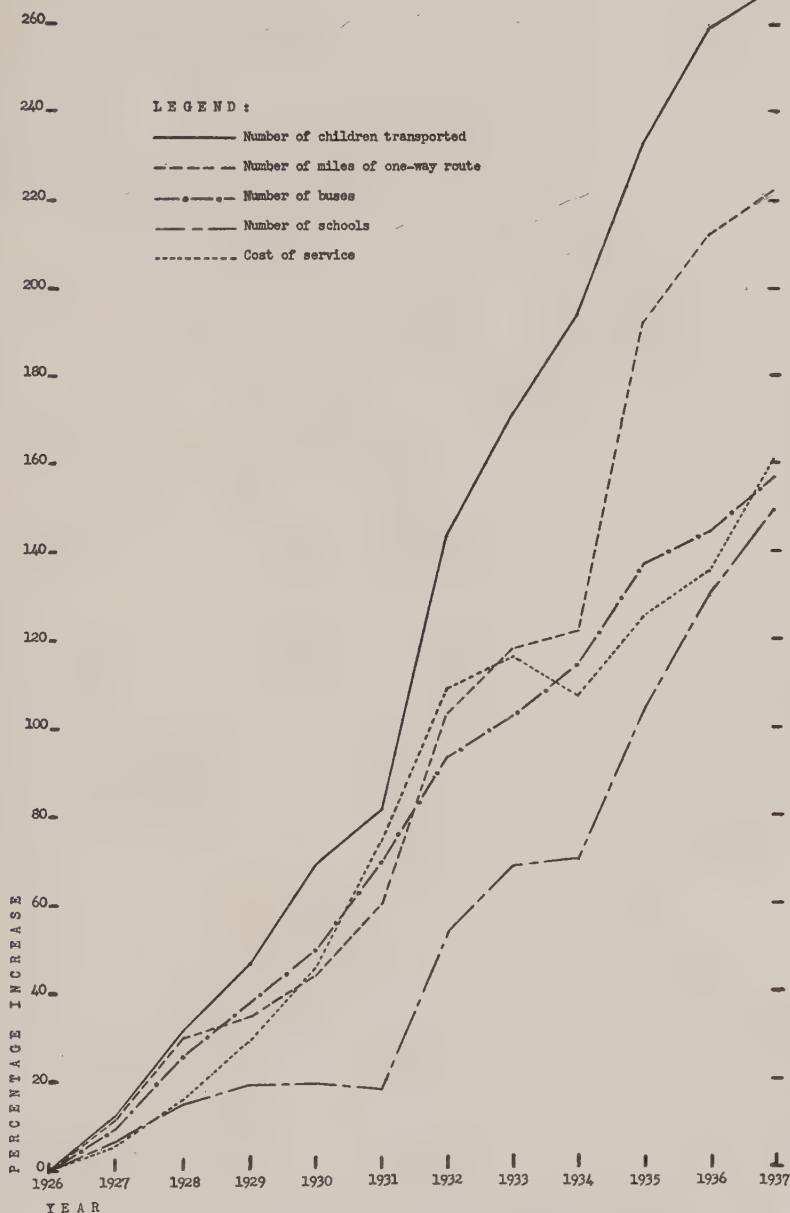
¹ This chapter was prepared with the assistance of M. C. S. Noble, Jr., director, Pupil Transportation Survey, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

rural states do not possess the same ratios between need and existing provisions as are found in such states as Indiana, North Carolina, Ohio, and Utah? This is a question which those interested in equality of educational opportunity must ask.

Rapid increase in bus transportation—In Figure XVII, the increase in school bus transportation is shown by five items: number of children transported, miles of one-way route, number of buses, number of schools, and cost of service, during the period beginning January 1, 1927, and ending December 31, 1937. The most notable thing about this chart is the amazing growth of pupil transportation during the last ten years. Of the items shown, the number of pupils transported shows the most rapid growth. The item showing the smallest percent of increase is “the number of schools with school bus facilities.” This result is to be expected as school administrators have long stressed the advantages of fewer and larger schools. Most significant is the fact that costs have not increased as rapidly as have other phases of transportation. Indeed, the gain in *results* is more than one and one-half times the gain in *costs*. This may be demonstrated in the following manner. If we eliminate the items entitled “increase in number of schools with bus facilities” and “increase in number of buses” and assume that costs are *in-put*, whereas “bus mileage” and the “number of children carried” represent *yield* on the investment, the following ratios are obtained:

(1) Percent gain in total mileage	221.81	
Percent gain in total costs	160.49	= 1.38
(2) Percent gain in total number of children carried	268.42	
Percent gain in total costs	160.49	= 1.67
		2 (3.05
		1.52

In other words, the mileage has increased 1.38 times as rapidly as the cost and the number of children carried has increased 1.67 times as rapidly. Combining mileage and number of children carried, the *yield* or results desired have increased 1.52 times faster than the cost of producing them. Apparently, efficiency in providing transportation increases along with growth in the scope of the program.



Source: Table taken from current survey of public school bus transportation in the United States which is being conducted by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Based on data appearing in the magazine, *Bus Transportation*, McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., New York.

FIGURE XVII.—PERCENT INCREASE IN SCHOOL BUS TRANSPORTATION

Factors affecting the growth of school bus transportation—The rapid growth in school bus transportation is due to a number of factors. Prominent among such factors are: (a) the public's ever increasing desire for better educational opportunities; (b) the establishment of consolidated schools; (c) statutory provisions for consolidation and transportation; (d) the development of the automobile; and (e) improved roads.

In rural communities, bus transportation has flourished mainly because of the public's desire to give the rural child an educational opportunity equal to that enjoyed by the city child. The desire to provide the rural child with improved educational opportunities led to the establishment of rural consolidated schools and each consolidation increased the number of pupils to be transported. The demand for transportation, which occurred as a result of consolidation, is best shown by the fact that between 1927 and 1937 the number of schools with bus facilities grew from 13,874 to 34,615—an increase of 149.5 percent.

The development of the motorized school bus followed the development of the automobile. During the period from 1895 to 1936, the total motor vehicle registrations in the United States increased from 4 to 28,221,291. Furthermore, on December 31, 1936, the Automobile Manufacturers Association reported that 70 percent of the total world registrations were in this nation; 54 percent of the families owned their own cars; one dollar out of every five retail dollars came from automotive purchases; and there were 43,400 car dealers. That the use of the motorized school bus has kept pace with other phases of automotive development is evidenced by the fact that in the United States the number of school buses now exceeds the total number of buses used for all other purposes. In 1925 there were 69,425 buses in the United States; of this number, 26,685 (or 38 percent) were school buses. In 1935, however, 77,825 (or 66 percent) of the 117,850 buses were used for school transportation. In other words, during this ten-year period, there was a 192 percent increase in the number of school buses as compared with an increase of only 70 percent in the total number of buses used.

In some instances good roads have been built following the erection of consolidated schools and in other instances the existence of good roads has led to the establishment of consolidated schools and adequate transportation facilities. In any event, road improvement pro-



*The world stands out on either side
No wider than the heart is wide;
Above the world is stretched the sky,—
No higher than the soul is high.*

—Edna St. Vincent Millay.

grams have been closely allied with increase in pupil transportation. Indeed, the present status of pupil transportation is due largely to the facts that: (a) the total local and state highway mileage in the United States is well in excess of three million miles; and (b) 371,424 (or 71 percent) of the 520,351 miles of state highways are surfaced.²

Administrative Problems

Any study of pupil transportation in rural areas shows that this phase of the public school program presents some of the most varied and complicated problems which the administrator must face.³ Altho the scope of the chapter is too limited to permit consideration of all these problems, some of the most important will be discussed under the following headings: (a) pupil safety and comfort; (b) bus schedules and bus routes; (c) bus drivers; (d) bus standards; (e) public-owned versus contract buses; (f) pupil behavior; and (g) the cost of pupil transportation.

Pupil Safety and Comfort

Safety and comfort of the pupils transported must be the first consideration which should enter into the plans for any program of school bus transportation. Safety and comfort, however, cannot be regarded as items which may be considered in connection with any one phase of the program; on the contrary, they must represent primary aims which are to permeate all phases of the program. Therefore, it should be understood that these two aims underlie every suggestion which is offered here. For example, the buses must be safe and comfortable; routes must be planned on the basis of safe road conditions; and bus drivers must carefully observe safety regulations.

Bus Schedules and Bus Routes

Briefly, it is maintained that the ideal bus route is characterized by: (a) the proper administrative relationships; (b) the transportation of the necessary number of children; (c) an economical method of operation; (d) a safe and comfortable bus; (e) an efficient driver; (f) correct conduct on the part of pupils; (g) a definite and fixed

² Data as of 1935. See: Automobile Manufacturers Association. *Automobile Facts and Figures (1937 Edition.)* New York: the Association, 1937, p. 71.

³ Any superintendent interested in adopting report forms on pupil transportation should write to H. F. Alves, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., who at this writing is developing a set of report forms for pupil transportation in cooperation with state education departments. West Virginia has developed an unusually complete set of sixteen different report forms.

schedule; (h) planned routing over well-conditioned roads; and (i) satisfaction on the part of the parents, pupils, and school authorities with the service rendered. However, because of the limited scope of this chapter and because many of these characteristics have been mentioned in preceding paragraphs, the discussion which follows will be limited to a description of characteristics (g) and (h).

The time schedule on which school buses operate should be carefully planned. In planning time schedules, the following rules should be observed:

(1) *Operate each bus on a definite and fixed schedule*—Schedules should be prepared prior to the opening of the school year and should carry complete information as to the time and place of all bus stops on both the morning and afternoon trips. Furthermore, parents should be notified as to the time and place at which their children are expected to board and leave the bus.

(2) *Assign the task of preparing the time schedule to the proper authorities*—In local school administrative units which employ a supervisor of transportation, the time schedule should be prepared by the supervisor with the aid of the driver and the school principal. In local school units which do not employ a supervisor of transportation, the time schedule may be prepared jointly by the driver and the school principal and approved by the superintendent. In either instance, however, the time schedule should be based upon actual trial trips over the proposed route and should not require a speed in excess of thirty-five miles per hour.

(3) *Post the schedule for each bus in the bus and on the bulletin board of the school*—This practice will (a) provide all pupils with the necessary information, (b) eliminate unnecessary delays along the route, and (c) reduce the number of absentees.

(4) *Provide the pupils and parents with advance notice of any changes in the schedule*—Careful planning will reduce the number of necessary changes to a minimum. Changes in the schedule should be approved by the superintendent's office. As changes in the bus schedule may require changes in the routine of the home, both parents and pupils deserve advance notice of such changes.

(5) *Arrange the schedule so that no pupil is required to ride more than an hour on the bus*—If the bus ride consumes more than one hour, the pupils will be too fatigued to carry on their regular schoolwork in a successful manner. Furthermore, the parents will object to school requirements which compel their children to spend too many hours away from home.

(6) *Adjust the bus schedule to the schedule of the school*—Pupils should not be delivered to the school prior to the time when the teachers are on duty or be required to remain at school after the time at which their bus is scheduled to depart. Moreover, schools should provide lunchroom facilities for those pupils who are transported.

THE SCHOOL BUS ROUTE

County _____ Checked by _____ Date _____

I. The Route

- A. From _____ (School) To _____ (Terminus)
- B. Check which
1. Actual route..... ()
 2. Potential route ()
- C. Length of trip to nearest one-tenth mile (1 plus 2, below).....
1. Distance from school to home of last pupil.....
 2. Additional distance traveled by bus on trip.....
- D. Number of bus or route.....
- E. Name of driver.....
- F. Check here if route is run in reverse order..... ()

II. Class or Kind of Road

	From	To	Number of miles
A. Hard surfaced.....() ^{a/}	_____	_____	_____
B. Gravel or chert.....()	_____	_____	_____
C. Sand, clay, or top soil.....()	_____	_____	_____
D. Graded.....()	_____	_____	_____
E. Unimproved.....()	_____	_____	_____

^{a/} If state highway, check in this column.

III. Condition of Road

- A. Satisfactory (broad and well surfaced).....() _____
- B. Narrow (less than 16 ft.).....() _____
- C. Rough and bumpy.....() _____
- D. Needs surfacing.....() _____

IV. Consecutive Summary of Hazards

Kind or nature of hazard ^{b/}	Distance from beginning	Recommendations and comments ^{c/}
A. _____	_____	_____
B. _____	_____	_____
C. _____	_____	_____
D. _____	_____	_____

^{b/} The following key may be used in describing kind or nature of hazard: ^{c/} Key for recommendations:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| Blind curves.....A | Needs gravel.....G | 1. Urgent—should be remedied at once. |
| Narrow bridge.....B-1 | Dangerous hill.....H | 2. Should be remedied as soon as practical. |
| Unguarded bridge.....B-2 | Bog or mud hole....M | 3. Driver should be instructed to use extra care and caution. |
| Unsafe approach.....B-3 | Dangerous ravine...R | |
| Needs repairs.....B-4 | Unbridged stream..US | |
| Bad culvert.....C | Right-angle turn...T | |
| Deep ditch or wash....D | Railroad crossing..X | |
| Unguarded fill.....F | Highway crossing...Y | |

V. Summary: Status with Regard to Transportation

- A. Well adapted in present condition.....()
- B. Fair: passable at all times.....()
- C. Impassable after prolonged rains.....()
- D. Treacherous after any rain.....()
- E. Could be well adapted by changes indicated under IV.....()
- F. Hazardous at all times.....()
- G. Totally unsuited for transportation.....()

Source: Morphet, Edgar L. "The Influence of Roads on School Transportation and Consolidation." *American School Board Journal* 85: 64; August, 1932.

FIGURE XVIII.—CHECKLIST FOR SCHOOL BUS ROUTE

2. And the party of the second part hereby further covenants with the part of the first part as follows:

1 That transportation will be provided as set forth herein from.....

to and return.

2 That the conveyance used will be.....
[Private contract, district owned, or public service]

[Horse-drawn, automobile, bus, train, trolley]

3 That the route, as more fully appears from the sketch on the last page herein, will be as follows:.....

4 That the time schedule will be as follows:.....

5 That the said party of the second part will at all times carry insurance¹ to the amount of \$..... public liability and \$..... property damage; that the premium is to be paid by the..... [Contractor, or district] and that such premium is included in the stated contract price.

And the party of the second part further covenants with the part of the first part that in consideration of the payments hereinbefore stated and of the covenants and agreements set forth he will convey said school children and faithfully perform his said duties and obligations in relation thereto pursuant to this contract, at all times exercising proper supervision over the children under his charge and that he will abide by all reasonable rules and regulations made by the trustee of said district in the premises.

¹ Under Section 17 (amended 1934) of the Vehicle and Traffic Law insurance policies are required to be filed with the Commissioner of Motor Vehicles on motor vehicles used in transporting pupils as follows:

Property Damage	Public Liability
\$10,000 minimum and \$5000 maximum on any motor vehicle so used.	\$10,000 minimum and \$5000 maximum on any motor vehicle so used.
\$2500 minimum and \$5000 maximum for 7 or fewer pupils	\$2500 minimum and \$5000 maximum for 7 or fewer pupils
5000 minimum and 15,000 maximum for 8 to 12 pupils	5000 minimum and 15,000 maximum for 8 to 12 pupils
5000 minimum and 40,000 maximum for 13 to 20 pupils	5000 minimum and 40,000 maximum for 13 to 20 pupils
5000 minimum and 50,000 maximum for 21 to 30 pupils	5000 minimum and 50,000 maximum for 21 to 30 pupils
5000 minimum and 50,000 maximum for 31 or more pupils	5000 minimum and 50,000 maximum for 31 or more pupils

3. And the party of the second part further covenants and agrees that the vehicle shall come to a full stop before crossing the tracks of any railroad and before crossing any state highway, and that it shall at all times comply with the rules and regulations of the Public Service Commission applying to such vehicles.

It is mutually agreed that this contract shall not become valid and binding upon either party thereto until the same shall be approved by the district superintendent and the Commissioner of Education.

In witness whereof, The parties have set their hands the day and year above written.

Post office address

As trustees¹ of school district no.

town of.....

Contractor

APPROVAL OF SUPERINTENDENT

I have examined the above contract and have observed the route, the character of conveyance, the time schedule and all other matters referred to in the said contract, as required by section 206, subdivision 18, of the Education Law, and am satisfied that the children will be properly cared for and conveyed under such contract and that the contract price is reasonable. I therefore approve the same.

District Superintendent of Schools of the

[Dated]..... supervisory district, county

of.....

¹ If a board of education, the contract should be signed by the president and secretary of the board.

(7) *Require the driver to adhere closely to the bus schedule*—Bus drivers may wait for pupils who are in view and observed to be making an effort to meet the bus. The driver, however, “shall not depart from any designated stop before two minutes after the scheduled time unless all pupils are on board.”⁴

To date, two devices have appeared which may be used by school authorities in achieving planned routing over well-conditioned roads. One of these devices consists of a form of the type used by the Oklahoma State Department of Education in aiding local school districts to prepare accurate and uniform maps which give detailed information regarding existing and proposed bus routes. The other type of device is represented by the road survey form which is used by the state department of education in Alabama (see Figure XVIII). Here it should be understood that the road survey form is not presented as a substitute for the maps, but as a basis for collecting additional and highly necessary information. Data secured thru the latter form should aid the superintendent in obtaining the cooperation of the highway department in keeping the roads, which the school buses travel, in the best possible condition.

Bus Drivers

Altho the general basic qualification for school bus drivers should be specified in the state's motor vehicle code and in the official rulings of the state's education and highway departments, the major responsibility for selecting competent school bus drivers must be assumed by local boards of education. In general, when an attempt is made to set up qualifications for drivers, emphasis is placed upon: (a) minimum age; (b) license requirements; (c) experience requirements; and (d) personal traits. An effort is sometimes made in bus drivers' contracts to prescribe desirable conditions as shown on pages 2 and 3 of the New York State form, Figure XIX. Similar contract forms are used in Minnesota, Alabama, and Michigan.

It should be mentioned that there are no state regulations regarding maximum age requirements. It seems necessary, therefore, that: (a) sixteen states must enact minimum age requirements; and (b) all of the forty-eight states must enact maximum age requirements. Just what ages should constitute the maximum and minimum age limits of drivers is one of the highly controversial issues in pupil transportation. Variations in the minimum age requirements are shown in Table 7.

⁴ Pennsylvania State Department of Education. *Standards, Rules, and Regulations Relating to Transportation of Public School Pupils*. Harrisburg: the Department, February 4, 1938. p. 13. (Mimeo.)

TABLE 7.—MINIMUM AGE OF BUS DRIVERS: UNITED STATES, 1936

Minimum age	Number of states
Adult.....	1
21 years.....	12
18 years.....	12
17 years.....	1
16 years.....	6
No age limit.....	16

Source: National Education Association, Research Division. "Safety in Pupil Transportation." *Research Bulletin* 14: 205; November 1936. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Nearly 40 percent of the states require school bus drivers to have either a special bus driver's certificate or a chauffeur's license; 40 percent require a regular driver's license; and 20 percent have no license requirement.⁵ As driving a school bus involves the highest type of responsibility, is it not necessary that all the states should require a special school bus driver's certificate?

Only fourteen states have "experience" regulations. In these states, the usual requirement is one or two years of experience; in some instances, however, there is only a general provision to the effect that the driver must be experienced. Surely each state should adopt regulations which require both experience and the rigid examination of all school bus drivers.

Existing state regulations regarding the necessary personal traits of bus drivers place greatest emphasis upon physical fitness and character. Unfortunately, however, only a few states have regulations covering physical fitness and only one-fourth of the states specify, either in their laws or official regulations, that drivers shall be of good moral character and shall have good habits. Thus, it appears that additional and more rigid personal trait requirements must be established in most of the states.

The driver is probably the most important factor in insuring pupil safety. He has two responsibilities in this connection, one of preventing accidents and the other of meeting the situation when accidents occur. A safe driving examination has been developed as shown in Figure XX to aid in selecting and training bus drivers who will

⁵ National Education Association, Research Division. "Safety in Pupil Transportation." *Research Bulletin* 14: 206; November 1936. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

SAFE DRIVING EXAMINATION

The maximum score for each point is indicated in the column at the right. Give yourself whatever proportion of this perfect score you honestly believe you deserve. A total score of 90 or more rates you as an excellent driver; 80 to 90, good; 70 to 80, fair; under 70, poor.

	Your Score	Perfect Score
1. Do you always drive at a reasonable speed, giving due consideration to traffic, road conditions, weather, etc.? ...	___	10
2. Do you make sure that your car is at all times in good order, particularly as regards brakes, steering gear, lights, windshield wiper, and tires?	___	10
3. Do you refrain from passing other vehicles on the brow of hills and on curves?	___	8
4. Do you make it the rule never to cut in and out of traffic?	___	8
5. Do you drive only when you are in full possession of your faculties?	___	7
6. Do you give the right of way to pedestrians, particularly children and the aged or infirm?	___	7
7. Do you at no time let your attention wander, either through conversation or sightseeing?	___	6
8. Do you slow down when handicapped by approaching headlights?	___	5
9. Do you always give proper and adequate hand signals before turning, slowing down, or stopping?	___	5
10. Do you strictly observe all traffic lights, stop signs, and warning signals?	___	5
11. Do you approach intersections, particularly blind intersections, with your car under complete control?	___	4
12. Do you get into the left lane before turning left and into the right lane before turning right?	___	4
13. Do you pull into traffic only after looking and signaling?	___	3
14. Do you make way when a car wishes to pass, instead of speeding up?	___	3
15. Do you cross grade crossings cautiously?	___	3
16. Do you keep at an adequate stopping distance from the car ahead?	___	3
17. Do you sometimes let the other fellow have your "right of way" in the interest of safety?	___	3
18. Is your rear vision mirror O.K.?	___	2
19. Do you park your car so as not to interfere with traffic?	___	2
20. Do you lock your car when parked?	___	2
Total	___	100

Source: Adapted by Alabama State Education Department from Safety Leaflet, Oklahoma State Highway Commission.

FIGURE XX.—CHECKLIST FOR BUS DRIVERS

prevent accidents. When an accident occurs the first responsibility is to care for the injured, and the next to record all factors pertinent to the accident. Several states have satisfactory accident report forms on which to record the necessary information.

Bus Standards

Common practice places the responsibility of providing equipment standards upon the state departments of education. Such standards seek to provide buses which will assure maximum safety and comfort to the children transported and also reasonable economies. California, Florida, Michigan, New York, and West Virginia are among the many states which have made considerable progress toward the establishment of statewide standards. More recently the National Highway Users Conference published a set of comprehensive standards.⁶

Altho desirable standards are now in existence in many states, the schools are still faced with such problems as: (a) the improvement of existing standards in the light of changing conditions; and (b) the many equipment problems which are so closely related to prevailing methods of operation and maintenance. Fortunately, the tendency to work for the improvement of standards—with respect to motors, chassis, and bodies—already exists. On the other hand, a few studies are being made of those problems which arise from methods of maintenance and operation; thus, it seems necessary to mention some of the problems which come under this heading.

The questions in Figure XXI, taken from a questionnaire which was designed to secure *professional opinion* on certain vital phases of school bus transportation, illustrate the varied and complex nature of those equipment problems which are associated with the operation and maintenance of school-owned buses.

Among the problems raised by contract methods of operation are: For satisfactory service, how many years should a school bus contract run? What equipment specifications, if any, should be included

⁶ California State Department of Education. *The Regulation of Pupil Transportation*. Bulletin No. 22. Sacramento: the Department, November 15, 1937. p. 9-20. ¶ Florida State Department of Public Instruction. *Standards and Regulations Relating to the Transportation of Pupils to the Public Schools of Florida*. Tallahassee: the Department, June 1938. p. 18-26. ¶ Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. *Pupil Transportation in Michigan*. Bulletin No. 401. Lansing: the Department, 1936. p. 23-26. ¶ New York State Education Department, Division of School Administrative Services. *School Bus Requirements and Recommendations (Effective February 1, 1938)*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1122. Albany: the Department, 1938. 11 p. ¶ West Virginia State Department of Education. *Standards for Design and Equipment of School Buses*. Charleston: the Department, May 16, 1938. 8 p. (Mimeo.) ¶ National Highway Users Conference. *School Buses—Safety Equipment and Construction Requirements*. Washington, D. C.: the Conference, National Press Building, October 1, 1938. 96 p. (Mimeo.)

QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL-OWNED EQUIPMENT

1. For school-owned buses, which policy do you recommend? (Check one)
The use of a single make of bus chassis?
The use of several different makes of bus chassis?
2. For school-owned buses, which policy do you recommend: (Check one)
The use of a single make of bus body?
The use of several different makes of bus bodies?
3. For school-owned buses, which of the following policies do you recommend? (Check one)
The purchase of school bus bodies from manufacturers?
The policy of building school bus bodies in school-owned shops or school-owned garages?
4. When school-owned buses are purchased, which of the following policies do you recommend: (Check one)
The policy of purchasing the complete bus, assembled and ready for operation?
The policy of separate purchases of body, and chassis and arranging to have the assembling done locally?
5. Which of the following practices is the most desirable when purchasing school-owned buses? (Check one)
Informal "shopping around"?
Purchase thru competitive bids based upon standards supplied by either the local board of education or by the State Department of Education?
Practice should vary from time to time?
6. Who should exercise the right of final approval in the purchase of school-owned buses? (Check one)
The local school principal or superintendent?
The county school superintendent?
The local board of education?
The State Department of Education?
7. How many extra or spare buses would you need to maintain a school-owned fleet of:

10 buses in daily service?.....		60 buses in daily service?....	
20 " " " "	70 " " " "
30 " " " "	80 " " " "
40 " " " "	90 " " " "
50 " " " "	100 " " " "
8. Do school-owned garages for storing school-owned buses during the summer months pay for themselves? (Check one)
Yes _____ No _____
9. Is it best to have repairs to school-owned buses made: (Check one)
On a job basis in a privately owned garage?
On a "blanket contract" in a privately owned garage?
In a garage maintained by either the State or Local Highway Department?
In a garage owned and maintained by your school system?
10. What is the total number of buses - both school-owned and contract buses used by your school system?
If all of your buses were school-owned buses and maintained in school-owned garages, how many mechanics should be employed in each of the classifications given below?
- | | Number
of
Employees | No. Months
Employed
Per Year | Average Annual
Salary
Recommended |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| Chief mechanics full time..... | | | \$..... |
| Chief mechanics part time..... | | | \$..... |
| Mechanics' assistants full time... | | | \$..... |
| Mechanics' assistants part time... | | | \$..... |
| Greasers and washers full time.... | | | \$..... |
| Greasers and washers part time.... | | | \$..... |

Source: Taken from the current survey of public school bus transportation in the United States which is being conducted by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

FIGURE XXI.—SAMPLE QUESTIONS FROM TRANSPORTATION SURVEY

in a school bus contract? How should the amount to be paid a school bus contractor for a given route be determined? What conditions or circumstances should be sufficient to warrant the immediate termination of a contract? Should contracts for school bus routes always be awarded to the lowest bidder? Should school bus contractors be required to furnish surety bonds and liability insurance? (See Figure XXII.)

Public-Owned versus Contract Buses

In studies which have been made of methods for operating school buses, the tendency has been to classify the various methods on the basis of ownership. Thus three major methods of operation have emerged, namely:

- (1) *School ownership and operation*—The complete bus unit—i. e., motor, chassis, and body—is owned and operated by the schools.
- (2) *Contract ownership and operation*—The complete bus unit—i. e., motor, chassis, and body—is owned and operated either by an individual or by a private business.
- (3) *Joint ownership with contract methods of operation*—Usually the bus body is owned by the schools, whereas the motor and chassis are owned by the party or parties who contract to operate the bus.

Any recommendation as to which method of operation should be employed must be founded upon rather definite answers to the follow-

Insurance on School Busses
Owned by the County Board of Education
Year 193 -3

County

Bus No.	Amount of Insurance Carried for			Annual Cost of Insurance			Company Writing Insurance	
	Limits of Personal Liability		Property Damage	Fire	Total	Paid by County		Paid by Driver
	Lower	Upper						
1.								
2.								
...								
20.								
Total								

Report by county superintendents on school bus insurance to Maryland State Education Department.

FIGURE XXII.—RECORD FORM FOR SCHOOL BUS INSURANCE (MARYLAND)

ing questions: (a) Which method provides greatest safety and comfort for the pupils who are transported? (b) Which method is the most economical? Fortunately, rather adequate data exist for answering these two questions.

Surveys in two different states may be cited to show that, judged by the *condition of the buses*, school ownership provides greater safety and comfort. In 1934, Engum made a survey of school bus construction in sixty-nine consolidated school districts in Minnesota. After checking each of the 245 buses in these districts on the basis of thirty construction items, Engum found that the percent of deficiencies was greatest in privately-owned vehicles, next greatest in jointly-owned vehicles, and smallest in school-owned vehicles (see Table 8).

In 1938, Noble, by rearranging and combining data which originally appeared in bulletins published by the Oklahoma State Board of Education, prepared Table 9. An inspection of Noble's table shows that: (a) under school ownership 70.6 percent of the chassis and 50.0 percent of the bus bodies for whites were in satisfactory condition, whereas under private ownership, only 56.3 percent of the chassis and 16.0 percent of the bus bodies for whites were in satisfactory condition; and (b) under school ownership 62.5 percent of the chassis and 26.4 percent of the bus bodies for Negroes were in satisfactory condition, whereas under private ownership only 37.7 percent of the bus chassis and 12.5 percent of the bus bodies for Negroes were in satisfactory condition.

TABLE 8.—DEFICIENCIES OF SCHOOL BUS CONSTRUCTION IN SIXTY-NINE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN MINNESOTA, 1934

Item	Type of bus		
	District owned	Jointly owned	Privately owned
1. Number of buses inspected.....	42	55	148
2. Maximum defects possible, checking on thirty construction items.....	1,260	1,650	4,440
3. Actual number of defects discovered.....	144	381	1,351
4. Percent of deficiencies.....	11.4	23.8	30.4

Source: Summary of Table II found in: Engum, T. C. *A Survey of School Bus Construction in Sixty-Nine Consolidated School Districts in Minnesota*. St. Paul, Minn.: State Department of Education, 1934. 8 p. (Mimeo.)

TABLE 9.—CONDITION OF SCHOOL BUSES, OKLAHOMA, 1936-37

Item	White				Negro			
	School owned		Contract		School owned		Contract	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1. Number of buses.....	1,323	100.0	966	100.0	40	100.0	85	100.0
2. Number of bus chassis.....	1,323	100.0	966	100.0	40	100.0	85	100.0
a. In satisfactory condition.....	934	70.6	544	56.3	25	62.5	32	37.7
b. In average condition.....	316	23.9	332	34.4	12	30.0	34	40.0
c. In unsatisfactory condition.....	69	5.2	84	8.7	3	7.5	18	21.2
d. In dangerous condition.....	4	.3	6	.6			1	1.1
3. Number of bus bodies ^a	1,684	100.0	605	100.0	53	100.0	72	100.0
a. In satisfactory condition.....	842	50.0	97	16.0	14	26.4	9	12.5
b. In average condition.....	539	32.0	207	34.2	21	39.6	30	41.7
c. In unsatisfactory condition.....	247	14.7	232	38.4	11	20.8	25	34.7
d. In dangerous condition.....	56	3.3	69	11.4	7	13.2	8	11.1
4. Number of routes.....	1,657		1,194		55		109	

Source: Transportation bulletins published by the State Board of Education, A. L. Crable, President, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. Arranged by: M. C. S. Noble, Jr., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

^a In some instances the district owns the bus body and the contractor owns the chassis.

Since 1925, more than a dozen highly comprehensive surveys have been conducted to determine the difference in costs which occurs as the result of different methods of operation. Briefly summarized, all these studies indicate that contract methods are much more expensive than school ownership. As might be expected, the two studies which give attention to all three methods of operation show school ownership to be least expensive, joint ownership next expensive, and contract methods most expensive.⁷ Probably the best analysis of the causes which make contract transportation more expensive than school-owned buses is found in a study by Roberts.⁸ According to Roberts, contractors do not actually bid on a *cost plus profit* basis but in terms of the maximum available allowance for transportation. For example, in Arkansas the average amount requested per school-owned bus was \$153 less than the average state allowance and the correlation between the actual cost of transportation and the state allowance was .487 with a possible error of $\pm .027$; whereas, the correlation between the actual cost of transportation and the state allowance for contract buses was .888 with a possible error of $\pm .007$.

For practical purposes, the question of choosing the most desirable method of operation may be narrowed to the choice between school ownership and contract operation. This is possible because: (a) transportation under joint ownership is usually regarded as contract transportation; (b) joint ownership is primarily a method of expediency which is employed either when the schools do not wish to assume the full responsibility of owning and operating the transportation facilities or when the contractors are financially unable to purchase adequate equipment; and (c) joint ownership, by implying elements of joint control of the bus units, is contrary to all accepted principles of business administration. With the selection of the method of transportation limited to the choice between school ownership and contract transportation, it seems logical to inquire if actual practice among the states is following the lines suggested by dependable research.

The data which have already been presented show that school ownership of buses is desirable because: (a) school ownership pro-

⁷ Gregory, Marshall, director. *Statistics Pertaining to Pupil Transportation in Oklahoma, 1931-1932*. Bulletin No. 136. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Department of Education, 1933. p. 34. ¶ Williams, R. C. *Cost of Pupil Transportation in Consolidated Schools of Iowa*. Research Bulletin No. 22. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1938. 31 p.

⁸ Roberts, Roy W. *An Analysis of the Cost of Pupil Transportation in Arkansas*. Bulletin No. 316. Fayetteville, Ark.: Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Arkansas, April 1935. p. 19-20.

vides greater safety and comfort for the pupils transported; and (b) school ownership is the most economical method of transportation. However, Table 10 indicates that an overwhelming majority of the school buses in the United States are contract buses. Altho Roberts has pointed out that in instances where the route is exceptionally short and where the pupil load is extremely small, contract transportation is apt to be more economical, it is obvious that one problem which confronts the rural schools of today is that of converting many contract routes into routes which will be characterized by school ownership of buses.⁹

⁹ Roberts, Roy W., *op. cit.*, p. 10-12.

TABLE 10.—METHODS OF OPERATING SCHOOL BUSES IN TWENTY-SEVEN STATES, 1936-37

State	School-owned buses		Contract buses		Total number of buses
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Alabama.....	567	20.3	2,235	79.7	2,802
Arkansas.....	596	45.3	721	54.7	1,317
California.....	1,500 ^a	68.1	700 ^a	31.9	2,200
Colorado.....	482	46.9	546	53.1	1,028
Connecticut.....	65 ^a	10.0	585 ^a	90.0	650
Florida.....	709 ^a	50.0	709 ^a	50.0	1,418
Idaho.....	56 ^a	25.0	169 ^a	75.0	225
Illinois.....	225 ^a	75.0	75 ^a	25.0	300
Indiana.....	3,630 ^a	50.0	3,630 ^a	50.0	7,260
Kentucky.....	461 ^a	33.3	922 ^a	66.7	1,383
Louisiana.....	125 ^a	4.9	2,430 ^a	95.1	2,555
Maine.....	72	28.0	185	72.0	257
Maryland.....	74	8.8	762	91.2	836
Mississippi.....	216 ^a	5.0	4,106 ^a	95.0	4,322
Missouri.....	298	17.0	1,457	83.0	1,755
Nevada.....	35	17.5	165	82.5	200
New Hampshire.....	0	0.0	299	100.0	299
North Carolina.....	4,014	98.6	60	1.4	4,074
Ohio.....	1,605	22.2	5,603	77.8	7,208
Oklahoma.....	1,363	56.7	1,050	43.3	2,413
Oregon.....	265	34.0	514	66.0	779
South Carolina.....	849	54.8	698	45.2	1,547
Tennessee.....	256	13.5	1,629	86.5	1,885
Utah.....	195	45.1	235	54.9	430
Washington.....	883	57.1	661	42.4	1,544
Wisconsin.....	300 ^a	15.0	1,700 ^a	85.0	2,000
Wyoming.....	137	22.6	468	77.4	605
Total.....	18,978	25.7	54,664	74.3	73,642

Source: These data are taken from the current survey of Public School Bus Transportation in the United States which is being conducted by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

^a Percent school owned and contract estimated by state department of education.

Pupil Behavior

The school bus presents a new social situation which pupils have not met elsewhere and for which their elders have not yet developed an effective code of proper conduct. The children are crowded together as a group day after day over a period of from a few minutes to an hour in length. The driver, if an adult, is usually the only adult present and he must focus his attention on the road ahead. Here, more than elsewhere about the school, the behavior of the pupils will depend upon themselves and must be built up from within. It will not be developed by prescribing rules of conduct, but by helping the pupils to take the responsibility for their own conduct. In such a situation where the whole group may be exposed to the unwholesome conversation of irresponsible members, a strong sense of group responsibility is necessary for the maintenance of a high morale. Careful attention on the part of the principal to this behavior problem is important. Care should be taken that the sense of pupil responsibility for behavior which is developed thruout the school be carried over to control behavior on the bus. Courses which consider school citizenship should include problems of good citizenship on the bus. Some schools have found effective the organization of the children on each bus into clubs. The organization of the safety patrol, with the sense of pupil responsibility which accompanies it, has been found an effective means of meeting the behavior problems on school buses. Figure XXIII shows the pledge taken by the Oklahoma School Patrol.

PLEDGE OF _____ SCHOOL PATROL	
I.	I promise on my honor
II.	To do my duty to God and my country, and obey the law.
III.	To work for the safety of the pupils of the schools as I would want those appointed to work for my safety and the safety of my family and friends.
IV.	To try to protect myself and those with whom I come in contact from the risk of unnecessary chances.
V.	To keep clean, morally, mentally and physically, by being honest, trustworthy, loyal, helpful, obedient and brave.
VI.	To do my part in helping reduce the number of accidents during this year and by my example to try and make my school a model one for safety.
VII.	To preserve and return my patrol equipment when ordered to do so.
_____ Signature of Patrol Member	_____ Badge Number
_____ Address of Member	_____ Telephone Number
_____ Date	_____ School Patrol _____ School
Approval of Parent or Guardian _____	
<u>Source:</u> Oklahoma Highway Commission. <u>Uniform Plan for Operation of Student Safety Patrols in Oklahoma.</u> Oklahoma City: the Commission. p. 4.	

FIGURE XXIII.—PLEDGE OF STUDENT SAFETY PATROL
(OKLAHOMA)

Many states have made long lists of rules and regulations governing the conduct of pupils transported to school. Since these lists have grown out of actual experience with disciplinary problems, the following summary of topics covered by state regulations will show the nature and variety of problems which have arisen:

(1) Meeting the bus:

- Promptness in meeting the bus.
- Standing or playing in roadway while waiting for the bus.
- Facing traffic when approaching bus stop on highway.
- Making sure the road is clear and awaiting the driver's signal when crossing the road to enter the bus.
- Looking to right and left before crossing road.
- Running alongside the bus when the bus is in operation.
- Wiping feet free of mud or snow before entering bus.
- Following the rules for the loading of buses.

(2) On the bus:

- Starting to school when sick or when any member of the family has a contagious disease.
- Marring or defacing the bus.
- Tampering with the emergency doors or any other part of the bus equipment.
- Throwing waste paper or other rubbish on the floor.
- Spitting on the bus floor or out of the windows.
- Extending arms, legs, or head out of the bus.
- Riding on bumpers.
- Participating in fighting or scuffling.
- Becoming familiar with members of opposite sex.
- Engaging in profane or indecent language.
- Making unnecessary noise.
- Waving or shouting to pedestrians or occupants of other vehicles.
- Engaging in such forms of rowdyism as the throwing or catching of hats, caps, books, dinner pails, etc.
- Carrying pets, playing cards, dice, firearms, tobacco, or intoxicants.
- Opening window without permission of the driver.
- Assignment of seats.
- Changing seats while the bus is in motion.
- Sitting in the driver's seat or sharing the seat with him.
- Occupying a seat or position which will obstruct the driver's vision or interfere with the operation of the bus.
- Courtesy to the driver, the bus patrol, and other students on the bus.
- Conversing with the driver while the bus is in motion.

(3) Leaving the bus:

- Leaving the bus before it comes to a full stop.
- Requiring pupils in front seats to leave bus first.

Leaving bus in an orderly manner and by the front door.
Loitering in or around bus when it is parked on the school grounds.
Leaving bus at regular stop on trip home.
Crossing road in front of bus.

(4) Control of misconduct:

Suspending bus privileges.
Reporting by driver to the school principal of misconduct.

This list of topics raises the following questions which cannot be answered here, but which may aid the administrator in analyzing his transportation problems: Do state rules and regulations represent the proper method for assuring desirable behavior? Does pupil transportation increase or decrease school disciplinary problems? Is misbehavior most likely to occur on the ride to school or on the ride home? Is pupil misbehavior most likely to occur on regular trips to and from school, or on special trips? With which type of driver is pupil misbehavior most likely to occur: (a) pupil drivers, (b) adult drivers employed by the schools, (c) adult drivers employed by contractors, or (d) adult contractors? Which type of bus seating arrangement is most conducive to good behavior?

The Cost of Pupil Transportation

In order to aid placing pupil transportation upon a sound fiscal basis, many studies have been made. Briefly, these studies serve the following major purposes: (a) to develop units of cost; (b) to compare costs in different schools or school systems; (c) to identify and measure the effects of factors which influence costs; (d) to develop methods for estimating the probable cost in state and local school systems; and (e) to develop technics for evaluating the various methods of allocating state aid. It should be understood, however, that most of these studies involve *several* rather than a *single* purpose.

The units of cost which have appeared in transportation studies (a) center in the "pupil," the "bus," the "mile," and the "route"; (b) are expressed in terms of "daily," "monthly," or "annual" costs; and (c) are concerned with either total expenditures, expenditures for current expense, or expenditures for capital outlay. Thus, we find such units as the total cost of transportation, the cost per route, the cost per bus, the cost per bus-mile, the cost per seat-mile, and the cost per pupil-mile.

An evaluation of such units indicates that the investigator should be guided by the following facts when selecting units of cost as a basis of measurement:

(1) *The use of any one of the various units of cost does not yield a complete "cost story"; a battery of units, therefore, is usually preferable to a single unit*—Evidence in keeping with this point of view may be drawn from Terry's study of *The Cost of School Transportation in Sixty-Four Counties in Alabama*.¹⁰ Terry found that contract transportation was less expensive than school ownership of buses if the following units of cost were used: per bus per year, per bus per month, per bus per day, per pupil per year, per pupil per month, and per pupil per day; but school-owned buses were less expensive if costs were determined on the basis of either the bus-mile or pupil-mile.

(2) *Selection of the cost-unit or units should be governed by the purpose of the investigation*—For example, the "total annual cost of transportation" which is of little advantage in some types of studies may be used to decided advantage by the investigator who desires to determine what percent of the total annual expenditures for public schools is devoted to transportation.

(3) *In general, daily costs as units of measurement, comparison, and prediction are superior to monthly and annual costs*—For example, it is natural that the length of the school term should exert a marked influence upon the cost of transportation. All things being equal, school systems with longer terms should expend larger sums for pupil transportation.

(4) *The prevailing tendency is to employ two-factor rather than single-factor units*—More recent studies favor such units as cost per bus-mile, cost per seat-mile, and cost per pupil-mile; whereas, the earlier studies favored such units as cost per bus and cost per route. Each unit, however, possesses its own separate and distinct advantages and limitations.

A question which state and local school administrators often ask is: How do transportation costs in my school system compare with transportation costs in other school systems? As an aid to administrators who desire data on comparative costs, the United States Office of Education prepares biennial reports showing the statistics for the various state systems. The magazine *Bus Transportation* publishes each year a statement showing the status of school bus transportation by states in terms of: (a) number of children transported, (b) number of miles of one-way route, (c) number of school buses, (d) number of schools with bus facilities, and (e) cost of bus transportation.

More than seventy factors have been identified as having a definite influence upon pupil transportation costs. These factors

¹⁰ Terry, William J. *The Cost of School Transportation in Sixty-Four Counties in Alabama*. Master's thesis. University, Ala.: University of Alabama, 1931. p. 58, 63,

group themselves into two major divisions: (a) managerial factors, and (b) natural factors. Managerial factors, such as the purchase price of the bus, salary of drivers, depreciation, interest, storage, and insurance, account for from two-thirds to three-fourths of the total cost of pupil transportation, whereas, natural factors, such as type of road and density of population, account for from one-fourth to one-third of the total cost. Naturally, a knowledge of such factors is essential to the achievement of reasonable economies in the program of transportation. Indeed, the school administrator, who is uninformed as to the factors which exist, is in no position to analyze, estimate, or compare pupil transportation costs.

A number of studies have been conducted to determine adequate methods for estimating the probable cost of pupil transportation in a given area. To date, most of these studies have: (a) advocated the use of regression equations, and (b) regarded density of population as the most influential factor in the determination of the number of pupils transported.¹¹ Recently, the Ohio State Department of Education adopted a technic for distributing state aid for transportation which possesses certain characteristics that are especially worthy of commendation. Under the Ohio plan, consideration is given to both natural and managerial factors. According to Hutchins, "the (Ohio) procedure employs the three most significant and valid factors beyond the control of the board of education (number of pupils transported in the district, number of pupils transported per square mile, and road conditions) in a regression equation from which can be calculated a right cost for each district," and then adjusts the basic cost in terms of "seven influential and valid managerial policies."¹²

It should be understood, however, that the verdict in favor of regression technics is by no means unanimous. Thus, Lambert, who is probably the most vigorous opponent of the use of the regression equation and the factor of population density, declares, among other things, that: (a) wherever attempts have been made to reorganize

¹¹ See: Burns, Robert Leo. *Measurement of the Need for Transporting Pupils*. Contributions to Education, No. 289. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 61 p. ¶ Gregory, Marshall. *The School Finance Law (House Bill No. 6 Rules and Regulations)*. Bulletin No. 145. Oklahoma City, Okla.: State Board of Education, 1937. p. 9. ¶ Hutchins, C. D. *The Cost of Pupil Transportation*. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1938. 12 p. (Mimeo.) ¶ Johns, Roe Lyell. *State and Local Administration of School Transportation*. Contributions to Education, No. 330. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 134 p.

¹² The seven managerial factors are: (a) number of pupils transported per bus, (b) number of trips per bus, (c) percent of capacity utilized, (d) percent of buses owned by the board, (e) average number of bids, and (f) seating arrangement.

local school units and attendance areas and to determine the necessary amounts of transportation, the values of regression equations have not asserted themselves; and (b) "predictions of necessary transportation, however elaborate, that are based upon averages and correlations between density of population and some expression of transportation cost cannot be reliable estimates of fiscal need."¹³ According to Lambert, "more direct and more fundamental analyses of the whole problem are needed." He states that:

The factors which positively determine the necessary amounts of transportation in a given region are: (1) the school-organization factor; (2) the limits fixed for a reasonable maximum walking distance for pupils of various ages and grades; (3) the number of pupils in the several cities, towns, villages, and open country who live beyond the accepted maximum walking distances; (4) the time factor as it operates with respect to the actual number of minutes expended in travel and the earliest hour in the morning at which pupils who are picked up on the first delivery can be expected to leave their dwellings; (5) the amounts, quality, and configuration of the roads and highways in the region considered; (6) the various capacities of the vehicles that can be used; (7) the mean running speed of the vehicles; (8) the patterns in which dwellings are scattered over the land surface; (9) natural barriers and civil boundaries that are often changed independently of educational considerations.¹⁴

Other Problems

It should be repeated that space limitations have prevented a consideration of all of the more important phases of pupil transportation; indeed, a separate volume, rather than a separate chapter, would be required to present such data. The following list of problems is suggestive of the many additional questions which might be considered. References pertaining to these questions may be found in the school laws of the different states.¹⁵

1. What provisions should be made for the transportation of exceptional children?
2. Under what conditions should pupils be transported across township, district, or county lines; also, what administrative provisions are necessary under such conditions?

¹³ Lambert, Asael C. *School Transportation*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1938. p. 42.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 118.

¹⁵ Additional references regarding the transportation of pupils to private and parochial schools are: National Education Association, Research Division. *State Aid to Private and Sectarian Schools*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1937. 36 p. (Mimeo.) ¶ National Catholic Welfare Conference. *Memorandum—Free Transportation and Free Textbooks for School Children*. Washington, D. C.: the Conference. 15 p. ¶ Cronin, James T. *State Supervision and State Aid of Private Elementary and Secondary Schools: A Statutory Summary*. Bulletin 1936, No. 1. New York: Institute of Catholic Education Research, Fordham University. 24 p.

3. Under what conditions are pupil board or payments to parents preferable to regular school bus transportation?
4. Should transportation of pupils to parochial and private schools be provided at public expense?
5. What types of accounts and records are necessary for the effective administration of pupil transportation facilities?
6. What provisions for liability insurance should be established for: (a) school-owned buses, (b) contract buses, and (c) buses operated under joint ownership?

Summary

The purposes of this chapter have been: (a) to describe the development and present scope of school bus transportation; and (b) to discuss a few of the more pertinent problems which confront school administrators who are actively engaged in administering bus transportation facilities. Emphasis has been placed upon general problems which must be met in every rural area and the discussions have been based upon the assumption that the aim of pupil transportation is to transport the necessary number of pupils in comfort and safety with reasonable economy.

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CHAPTER XI

Professional Leadership

THE SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM offers opportunities for professional leadership by the superintendent of schools and the members of his staff which are limited only by their ability to appreciate the challenging situations which arise and by their skill in meeting these situations in a masterful way.¹ In no type of school do these tasks more frequently arise and one need not look elsewhere for rich rewards of able and successful leadership.

The small school system is a major institution of the community which it serves. To organize and administer an educational program which embodies an effective training program for children and at the same time to recognize the need for extending the resources and influence of the school to the community as a whole is a challenge to the leadership abilities of any individual. The situation requires a superintendent (a) with the essentials of leadership, (b) with a grasp of the opportunities of his strategic position, (c) with a knowledge of possible coordination with the efforts of county and state authorities, and (d) with an appreciation of the necessity for improving leadership. With the consideration of these four topics the present chapter is primarily concerned.

Essentials of Leadership

As is true of other human characteristics, the fine quality of leadership is not found in like proportion in all individuals. Neither does it automatically emerge at any given time. In other words, there are certain elements essential for educational leadership which make it possible for certain individuals to be given preferred recognition.²

Professional Vision and Zeal

Undoubtedly the first essential of an educational leader is the possession of a wholesome personality and sound character. Leader-

¹ In the preparation of this chapter, the Commission received the valuable assistance of R. C. Williams, director of research, Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa.

² For a detailed analysis of the leadership qualities of superintendents, consult the rating form shown in the following: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Educational Leadership: Progress and Possibilities*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1933. p. 325-38.

ship is a spiritual quality, the germ of which is within the individual. Without the ability to attract and inspire others and merit their confidence and support, one cannot lead.

Another important characteristic of an educational leader is that of professional vision. The field of education is built upon certain philosophical principles which represent more than the manipulation of materials. These principles must be within the grasp of the educational leader. He must be conscious of the environment in which the school operates, the relation of the school to society, the results which are to be sought in promoting the cause of education, and the possibilities of achievement by pupils and teachers. A professional leader must have that zeal which is not sidetracked by temporary or minor influences but which is founded upon an abiding faith in the sufficiency of the school as a conscious agent of society.

The position of superintendent of a small school system calls for certain professional characteristics which are peculiarly appropriate to this type of school. The small school system is an educational institution created by and for the community. It should be so organized as to serve the needs of the community and its children. The superintendent should be conscious of the purpose of a small school system. He will see the possibilities for developing a high type of educational program in his own system regardless of its size and will take whatever steps are necessary to make his system an outstanding one. He will not be satisfied until his entire professional staff is cooperating in a program of this nature. He will develop a plan of action which grows out of the needs of his school system and adapt practices developed elsewhere only as they can serve the needs and conditions of his own schools.

Adequate Training

The necessary training of the superintendent of schools cannot be classified by levels according to the size of the system over which he may preside. The problems of the small system are similar to those of the large system, at least in scope if not in detail. Having no professional assistance to share responsibility or to whom specific problems can be assigned, it falls to his lot to deal with them personally. There is ordinarily no other individual in the community to whom he may look for guidance or advice in the solution of his problems.

For the sake of his own personal welfare as well as the successful

administration of his school system, the superintendent should equip himself with an adequate amount of training before accepting such a position. Training as a football coach, as an instructor of vocational subjects, or even as an academic teacher is not enough. Nor will he be satisfied with a certain minimum which, while qualifying him for an administrative certificate, does not give a comprehensive study of the entire field of school administration. The superintendency of schools has rapidly taken form as a professional position of educational leadership with rather well-defined areas of activity. Since boards of education are reposing in the superintendency increasing functions and responsibilities, they may be expected to seek those whose previous training recognizes the importance of the position.

It is unfortunate, indeed, for the superintendent of schools ever to consider himself adequately trained for his work. If there be a need today for various types of adult education for our general population, there is all the more need for a continuous training of the person who is to occupy such an important position as the superintendent of schools. Community life is always in process of transition. Changes in teaching personnel invariably provoke new problems. Education as a science is rapidly unfolding. The educational leadership calls for a never-ending study of the field. Among the opportunities for self-improvement which should be taken advantage of are:

(1) *Professional meetings and conferences*—Whether or not such meetings are confined to immediate problems confronting the superintendent of schools, they will serve to keep him alive and growing professionally.

(2) *Professional organizations*—Membership should be sought in professional organizations such as the American Association of School Administrators, the National Education Association, the National Society for the Study of Education, and the state teachers association. Such affiliations are not only an index of professional loyalty and interest but furnish media thru which the superintendent may share in the progress of educational thought and action.

(3) *Summer school attendance*—It should not be necessary for the superintendent of schools to attend summer school thru any form of compulsion. Possession of a graduate degree should not be misinterpreted as the terminus of one's education. The alert superintendent will recognize the summer school as a means of strengthening his

professional outlook and of studying problems which may confront him. The accumulation of academic credit should be a minor consideration.

(4) *Professional reading*—A program of professional reading which has been thoughtfully planned is a vital part of the training of the school administrator. His personal budget should include a definite sum of money for this purpose. He will read regularly professional magazines in his own field and will seek to broaden his horizon of understanding by consistent reading of other magazines devoted to discussions of problems of social significance. His affiliation with professional organizations will regularly bring to his desk the results of study and research which have been prepared for his benefit. Thru them he will be informed of the books and other publications which are currently issued.³ Thru a study of magazine articles and bulletins he will be directed to more specialized publications which deal with the problems in which he is particularly interested.

(5) *Conferences with representatives of state departments of education and colleges of education*—Persons occupying state department and university positions are in contact with developments in the field and have a broader perspective of the work of the schools. These persons can give helpful advice on problems of school administration and also can put one in touch with developments in other localities which may prove helpful.

(6) *Projects for the improvement of the local school system*—The planning and direction of projects which aim to improve some phase of the administration or instruction of the local school will also strengthen the grasp of professional problems and their significance. Teachers will respond readily to this type of intelligent leadership.

Continuity of Tenure in Position

Short tenure does not result in better schools. While longer periods should be a recognition of qualities of leadership, instances of unwarranted changes in positions are too frequent. Nothing will do more to stabilize the teaching profession in small school systems than the assurance that those who give satisfactory service will be invited to retain their positions.

However, longer tenure is not necessarily an indication of unusual

³ See lists such as the following: "Sixty Educational Books of 1936." *Journal of the National Education Association* 26: 115-18; April 1937.

service or leadership. Every school community should avoid the educational inertia which may unconsciously arise thru a feeling of either complacency, indifference, or lack of initiative. Superintendents of schools and members of their faculties may well remind themselves that there are a number of things which they may do, entirely ethical in nature, for the sake of lengthening their period of service in the school system.

(1) *Conduct a school system which is recognized as of a high caliber*—The only justification for retention in service should be satisfactory service in the past. Superintendent, principals, and teachers may realize that the board of education and the community want the school system to be a good one and that a professional staff has this responsibility. They will want to retain those who are responsible for a good school but not those who have not contributed toward the educational advancement of the system.

(2) *Become a part of the community*—Educators frequently are misunderstood because people are not acquainted with them. Thru community service the general public gets to know its school faculty better and comes to appreciate its commendable qualities.

(3) *Cultivate good personal habits*—Whether justifiable or not, a community and its board of education may expect from those who administer the schools certain standards of conduct which are not generally followed in other vocations. In the small school system the actions and habits of teachers become common knowledge and the subject for idle talk. Such practices as failure to meet one's personal bills will not be accepted by most communities.

(4) *Give the school and its interests the right of way*—When one is employed by a school system the board of education can expect that the school will have first claim upon the ability and energy of the teacher. A community will not look kindly upon a superintendent of schools or a teacher who devotes to some non-school activity energy and influence to which the school system is entitled.

(5) *Know your teachers and have them know you*—Discuss problems with them frankly and in a judicious manner and they will respect you even tho they will not uniformly support your point of view. The board of education and the community prefer a teaching staff in which there is a spirit of unity and goodwill and will frown upon persons whom they feel are the source of discord.

(6) *Keep up your professional training*—Nothing will keep a person more alert in his own field than continuous study. Provision should be made in the use of one's time for regular periods of professional study.

(7) *Avoid favoritism toward teachers, pupils, departments, business concerns, or special interests*—The head of the school system should not be expected to divide his time, interest, or patronage equally among all groups, but he should deal with them judiciously. The public does not want a vacillating or compromising policy but it will approve the actions of a school executive who acts fairly.

(8) *Be ready to adjust yourself to the community and new conditions*—Do not expect the board of education or the people of the community immediately to follow your leadership in directions which appear to them as extreme. The efficient leader will gain the confidence of his constituency and they will seek his guidance.

In developing an educational program for a community, one must keep close enough to the community so that he may lead and the people will accompany him. When people are in touch with what is going on in school and are given facts as to the school's needs they will be ready to act. The wise leader will align himself with others in the community who are capable of leadership. He will create a new organization to promote the interests of the schools only when existing agencies cannot serve the purpose equally well. The ability to work with people, to meet them under various conditions, and to understand the other person's point of view should be cultivated by everyone who aspires to leadership.

Professional Leadership in Action

As a professional leader the local superintendent of schools (whether his district is a village, township, or county) has three major areas in which to exercise his talents: (a) the community, (b) the schoolboard, and (c) the school system.

In the Community

Whether consciously or not the superintendent (and each principal and teacher!) is a part of the community in which he works. How great a part he may represent is to a large extent conditioned by himself. Whether or not education is a community enterprise or

merely an isolated agency in the community depends largely upon the leadership and efficiency of the professional staff.

(1) *The faculty of a small school system should be conscious of the interests and needs of the community*—The superintendent and the teachers in a small school system generally come from other communities. They have seen forces at work in other places and have had an opportunity to observe their effect. A new environment provokes the observation and application of its workings. The professional staff will reside in the community at least during the school year and will be affected by its life and activities.

It is not difficult for the superintendent of a small school system to find himself so engrossed with the recurring problems which he must face that he need not look beyond the school itself to find sufficient occasion to use his time. Nevertheless, the consciousness that the school is a part of the community should remind him and the members of his staff of the importance of community welfare.

(2) *The intimacy of contact in the small community should prove both helpful and satisfying*—The attitude of self-sufficiency or aloofness which is often found among educators in small school systems should be eliminated if for no other reason than the effect upon the morale and the happiness of the individual. The educator will meet people from all parts of the community in business, church, and social life. He will be invited to serve on boards and committees, and his advice and assistance will be sought in many things, not for the sake of courtesy but for the help he can give. He will come to know the people of his community personally and will be able to call them by name. He is a part of the community and its institutions.

(3) *The professional leaders of the school system are in a position to contribute to the improvement of the community*—To be conscious of one's ability to contribute toward the betterment of community life does not necessarily mean that one needs to have an exalted opinion of himself. It puts the superintendent in a position to take his place in community life. His assistance will be solicited not only because of his position in the school but as a member of the community. Communities are built and maintained thru the work and influence of individuals who have taken their places as the opportunity arose. In the same sense will the leader of a small school system find his life satisfying as he shares his talents in the

general uplift of the community. Whatever shortcomings there may be in his paycheck will be somewhat compensated by the consciousness that progress is being made in enriching the community of which he is a part.

(4) *The superintendent of schools should not limit his service to any specific interest outside the school*—Naturally, he will affiliate himself with some particular church, lodge, or club. He will have a special interest in some field of community activity, but as a leader he will not let these personal affiliations dominate his community service or cause him to take a passive attitude toward any program of community betterment.

Relation to the Board of Education

The specific purpose for which the superintendent of schools has been chosen is to serve the board of education and the community as the administrator of its system. Admission into such a position carries with it certain obligations and responsibilities which must not be considered lightly. How may the superintendent of schools or a member of his faculty best serve?

(1) He will know the requirements of his position and will have prepared himself for them. He will understand children and the problems of parents. He will be able to meet people on their own levels and deal with them in a rational manner.

(2) He will gain the confidence of the board of education. The service of a superintendent should confirm in the minds of the members of the board the confidence expressed thru his selection for the position, and when this confidence has been established, they will look to him more and more for leadership and guidance.

(3) He should study all the aspects of a problem before taking action. Too frequently a decision is made or some step is taken in the wrong direction because only a partial analysis has been made.

(4) He should arrive at a definite decision and act in accordance with the best interests of the school. Leadership does not arise out of lack of conviction or a compromising attitude.

(5) The superintendent should be more concerned about the smooth and efficient operation of his school system than the personal credit that may be received for any of his achievements. The results which appear will speak for themselves and will reflect efficient leadership.

(6) He will keep the public informed as to the plans of the school system and will not belligerently attempt to push beyond the sympathy and interests of the people.



*Little towns are friendly towns,
I'll take Main Street any day,
And the fun of greeting neighbors
As I walk its narrow way.*

*Your pockets can be empty,
But you're richer than a king,
Just walk a block of Main Street,
Greet the friends all small towns bring.*

—Raymond C. Caueffield.

*Photograph by
Ewing Galloway*

While the board of education, as described in Chapter XIII, may have decided the policies under which it wishes the schools to be administered, in most instances it will leave to the discretion of the superintendent the manner in which those policies are to be put into effect. The way in which this is done is one indication of the ability of the superintendent to be a leader. Thru his insight and ability he will correctly interpret the desires of the board without detailed specifications.

To suggest that a superintendent of schools should assist in guiding the work of the board of education does not imply the assumption of undue control or authority. It merely means that the board should enjoy the benefits accruing from the superintendent's ability to aid in their plans. He should sense the problems confronting the board and the decisions to be made beyond the immediate future thru the presentation of appropriate facts and their interpretation so that he may guide the board in the proper course which it should take.⁴

Relation to the School System

In his relationships to the schools of which he has charge, the superintendent will be called upon to exercise constant leadership. He alone must determine the channels thru which this leadership will be exerted. Nevertheless, he will be confronted with a number of aspects of the work of his school system which he cannot afford to slight or overlook.

(1) *Efficient administration*—The small school system will not be efficiently administered without the careful attention and deliberate planning of the head of the school system. One of the first essentials for efficient school administration is the proper allocation of time and duties. Special care will be exercised in assigning important duties to principals and other assistants who will develop leadership in a particular area under wise guidance. Where the superintendent must handle many of the details himself, he must learn to conserve his time. The preparation of a daily, or perhaps better, a weekly schedule in which the executive budgets his own time is a necessary step. Provision should be made for visiting classrooms at work, for conferences with different teachers, for time to be spent

⁴ For further details on the work of schoolboards and superintendents in small school systems consult: Carpenter, W. W. *Code of Rules and Regulations for Boards of Education in Small Cities*. Bulletin, Vol. 7, No. 6. Jefferson City, Mo.: State Department of Education, September 1933. p. 54-55.

at his desk when callers will be received, and for all the other duties which may come to his attention. Figure XXIV illustrates the nature of such a schedule.

Efficient administration implies that the budgeting of a superintendent's time will be based upon the emphasis which needs to be given to various aspects of the schoolwork. This distribution must be built around the tasks of the superintendent, such as classroom instruction, which have a fixed place in the use of his time. Careful planning will avoid such occasional weaknesses as neglect of the elementary grades, undue attention to extracurriculum activities, and failure to delegate duties which may properly be assigned to others. Such routine will be set up in order to promote efficiency and avoid slavery to details. The fact that unforeseen matters may arise to disrupt a time budget does not minimize its value, but emphasizes the necessity of directing attention to certain definite things which ought to be done.

(2) *Improvement of learning*—If there is any aspect of the operation of the school system about which the superintendent should be especially concerned, it is the improvement of learning. This field is probably the farthest removed from the background and experience of the board of education and the one to which they will most readily look to him for leadership. It is essential to repeat and emphasize the fact that the learning process in its broadest aspects is the nucleus for the existence of the school. The efficient superintendent will not assume that the children in a school system will be properly taught by merely placing them in classrooms presided over by teachers. He will be conscious of his obligation to raise the level of learning as high as possible. This is an inherent responsibility of the superintendent of schools. With the cooperation of his faculty he will organize a definite program thru which instruction and learning within the scope of the school will be constantly stimulated and appraised.

To do this involves consideration of a number of factors which contribute to the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Among these are the following:

- (a) Careful recommendation and selection of teachers and their assignment where they can do their best work.
- (b) Pupils grouped according to levels of progress with sufficient flexibility to recognize individual differences.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00 a.m.	Office	Office	Office	Office	Office	- Inspection of buildings - Check teachers' plans - Plan schedule for next week
9:00 a.m.		Prepare material for local newspaper				
10:00 a.m.	Visit third grade (Reading)	Visit third grade (Reading)	Visit third grade (Reading)	Visit fourth grade (Reading)	Visit fourth grade (Reading)	
11:00 a.m.	Teach Economics class	Teach Economics class	Teach Economics class	Teach Economics class	Teach Economics class	
Noon		Kiwanis Club		Lunchroom		
1:00 p.m.						
1:30 p.m.	Visit fifth grade (Reading)	Visit fifth grade (Reading)	Visit fifth grade (Reading)	Visit sixth grade (Reading)	Visit sixth grade (Reading)	
2:30 p.m.	Preparation for board meeting 1. Financial report 2. Attendance report 3. Recommended changes in salary schedule	Preparation for teachers' meeting			Conference with high-school principal	
4:00 p.m.		Meetings of elementary teachers - remedial reading	Conference with elementary principal - tests	Office hour for teachers	Office	
Evening	Board meeting 7:30 p.m.		Junior High P.T.A.			

FIGURE XXIV.—WEEKLY SCHEDULE FOR THE SUPERINTENDENT OF A SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM

- (c) Curriculum organized around functional units of learning constantly enriched and organized to provide continuous and complete experiences and the economy of learning.
- (d) Textbooks and instructional materials provided of the highest quality, in sufficient number to promote effective learning, and related to the instructional program of the school.
- (e) Teaching schedules arranged with prime recognition for the ease of learning.
- (f) Personal acquaintance by the superintendent and supervisor with the work of each teacher for the purpose of helpful guidance rather than censorious appraisal.
- (g) Evaluation of pupil progress developed with the cooperation of the teaching staff.
- (h) Specific program of in-service training of teachers, outlined for a period of years and arranged in order of attack.

(3) *Recommendation and assignment of teachers*—When a superintendent recommends to a board of education the appointment of persons to his professional staff, he is determining the success of his school system in the most direct manner. In making recommendations the superintendent may well consider the following suggestions: first, he should clearly understand the nature of the duties involved; second, he should make an honest and complete appraisal of the ability of the incumbent in the position, and if a change is necessary he should fully justify the change; third, before a change in personnel is announced, he should have a frank and thoro discussion of the situation with the individual who is to be replaced; fourth, he should have carefully and thoroly investigated the qualifications of those whom he has considered and recommended;⁵ fifth, the persons recommended should have been chosen solely on the basis of their ability to give satisfactory service and without regard to personal bias or prejudice; and sixth, he should make his recommendation in writing and file a copy with the secretary of the board of education.

The small school system provides special opportunities for successful teaching. Candidates for teaching positions may be asked as to the source of their interest in the small school system, and the prospective ability of each candidate to fit into the vacancy should be carefully weighed. Teaching as a career in a small school system

⁵ The whole field of rating personal characteristics is one requiring great caution. Consult such publications as, *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection* by Ernest W. Tiegs. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1928. 108 p. ¶ Clapp, Frank L., and Risk, Thomas M. *Better Teaching*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1926. 58 p.

can be made attractive and this possibility should be given consideration by the superintendent in making up his recommendation.⁶

The recommendation and assignment of teachers is a professional task of the superintendent which may be set forth by statute; if not, it should be specifically mentioned in the proceedings of the board of education which outline his duties. This responsibility cannot be discharged properly by members of the board of education acting independently of the superintendent. They are not in a position to appreciate the particular qualifications desired, the elements of satisfactory training needed for each position, or the channels thru which competent persons may be secured. Where the board of education dominates the recommendation or assignment of teachers this situation is usually due to a misunderstanding of their relationship to the superintendent, a lack of confidence in his ability, or selfish motives on their part. If the superintendent is not qualified to recommend teachers for appointment, it is doubtful if he has qualifications which make him worthy of occupying the position of superintendent.

(4) *The curriculum*—One of the frequent weaknesses of the organization of a school system is the vagueness as to the content of the curriculum. Undoubtedly this indefiniteness is in large part responsible for much superficial instruction. Where the content of the curriculum is not set forth for the school system each teacher will be inclined to follow particular textbooks which are furnished, other materials which he is able to secure, or such plans as he may be able to develop thru his own initiative, with little or no regard for the remainder of the school. One of the essentials of an efficient instructional program is a coordinated core of subjectmatter which is related in appropriate manner from grade to grade thruout the school. While the curriculum should be constantly sensitive to necessary changes, these variations should not be controlled by changes in the teaching personnel. The obligation for providing a modern enriched curriculum rests with the school superintendent and should not be the complete responsibility of the individual classroom teacher.

It is essential that a school system have at least a skeleton outline of its curriculum. This outline can be developed thru the initiative

⁶ For suggestions in this area consult "The Preparation of Teachers for Small Rural Schools" by Mabel Carney. *Special Survey Studies*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 10. National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. V. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1935. Part 7, p. 341-84.

of the superintendent with the cooperation of the teaching staff. The findings of research and experimentation which are available in generous amounts should be drawn upon frequently. The organized curriculum represents the teaching program of the school and the goals toward which teachers and pupils are working. In the outlines of a course of study, consideration should be given to factors such as the following: (a) subjects required by law or regulation, grades in which they are to be taught, and time allotments; (b) availability of libraries, laboratories, and other opportunities for pupil experience; (c) community needs; (d) nature of a modern educational program; (e) type of school organization; and (f) encouragement of initiative by teachers in lifting the school and its curriculum out of a traditional atmosphere. Chapters V, VI, and VII suggest how some of these problems may be appropriately handled.

Coordination of Leadership

There are in the United States about 3100 city superintendents in cities over 2500 in population, perhaps 5000 superintendents or supervising principals in towns under 2500 population, about 3400 county and district superintendents, and nearly 50 state commissioners and superintendents of public instruction. The possibilities are many for overlapping jurisdiction, joint authority, and professional contact among these types of positions. Each official has his unique function and legal status, but each also has a responsibility to coordinate his work with others to advance the social purposes for which public education was established.

County Superintendent

Of the 3400 rural superintendents (district and county) about half are elected by popular vote and half are appointed to office. In general, the county superintendent who is appointed to office excels in training, experience, and professional outlook his popularly chosen counterpart. Students of rural education are in agreement that the political nature of the county superintendent's office is the greatest impediment to genuine educational leadership; but even those politically chosen may thru cooperation with local and state officials provide a professional environment conducive to the improvement of professional practices. A few examples of countywide

efforts which require cooperation of all school leaders are the following:

(1) *Studies of rural supervision*—Among the studies which have developed patterns for this type of investigation are those of South Dakota,⁷ Indiana,⁸ Michigan,⁹ and North Carolina.¹⁰ These surveys are helpful in indicating some of the more successful methods of supervision.

(2) *In-service training of teachers*—The purpose of such a program on a countywide basis might be (a) to improve instructional procedure, (b) to acquaint communities with the needs and practices of the schools, (c) to provide conditions under which good professional attitudes may develop, and (d) to acquaint teachers with the recent findings of research.¹¹

(3) *Community and personal health*—In Erie County, New York, teachers and superintendents prepared a checklist for the study of school health and sanitary conditions. Other projects have broadened into a study of community problems.¹²

(4) *Enrichment of the curriculum thru the fine arts*—In Gallia County, Ohio, a county supervisor of music introduced a musical program into a consolidated school district where there had been little of the fine arts.¹³

(5) *Utilization of community resources*—In Delmar, New York, the teachers visited industries and stores in the immediate vicinity. The plan followed had a number of unique features.¹⁴

The foregoing illustrations indicate areas in which cooperation between the local or town superintendent and the regional superintendent (township, district, or county) may lead to many opportunities for effective leadership. Primary responsibility for initiating such enterprises on a regional basis rests with the county superintendent of schools. In some instances the county superintendent may wish to approach these activities thru the sponsorship of a district educational club rather than directly thru his official program.

⁷ Pittman, Marvin Summers. *The Value of School Supervision*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1921. 140 p.

⁸ Sherwood, Henry Noble. *Value of Rural School Supervision*. Indianapolis, Ind.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1926. 67 p.

⁹ Hoppes, W. C. *The Value of Supervision in Rural Schools of Oakland County*. Bulletin No. 7. Lansing, Mich.: Michigan Education Association, 1926. 40 p.

¹⁰ Southhall, Maycie. *A Study of the Value of Supervision in Consolidated Schools*. Publication 106. Durham, N. C.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1926.

¹¹ Fischer, Fred C. "A County Program for In-Service Training of Rural Teachers." *Adjustments in Rural Education*. Bulletin, 1937. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1937. Chapter 6, p. 33-38.

¹² Drenckhahn, Vivian V., and Grout, Ruth E. "Health Practises and Technics." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook, 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. Chapter 2, p. 30-44.

¹³ Keller, Edith M. "Modern Practises in Music in Rural Schools." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook, 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. Chapter 6, p. 87-97.

¹⁴ Holdford, Anne V. "Local Environment as a Source of Instructional Materials." *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools*. Yearbook, 1938. Washington, D. C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1938. Chapter 7, p. 98-109.

The chief advantage of the approach thru professional associations is that it should increase the range of interest and the number of active participants.

State Departments

Originally the functions of state departments of education were record-keeping, law interpretation, and distribution of financial aid. With the growth in the significance of the educational function of the state, the need for centralized leadership developed. To some this meant the concentration of great power in state departments of education; others believed that centralization was undesirable. As a result, the machinery in the states today represents varying degrees of centralization of authority.

Principles guiding centralizing tendencies—After a study of centralizing tendencies in the administration of public education in North Carolina, Maryland, and New York, Strayer suggested the following guiding principles for state legislation:

(1) The state should guarantee support for local school systems in order to make an acceptable foundation program available thruout its entire area.

(2) The state's program for financing schools should be in the nature of a minimum program in order to preserve local initiative and opportunity for experimentation.

(3) Control of minimum standards for school sites, buildings, and equipment should be placed in the state department of education.

(4) The state should be responsible for the establishment of standards and for the administration of a system of certification.

(5) State control over curriculums and courses of study of the schools should be limited to the enforcement of general requirements considered essential to the safety and perpetuity of the state.

(6) The state should provide leadership in matters relating to courses of study, curriculums, and methods of teaching even tho the control be left to the local units of administration.

(7) The state department of education should be given legislative authority in regard to the minimum scope and organization of local school systems.

(8) The state department should provide leadership in the reorganization of small and inefficient units of administration into units large enough to employ competent administrators and supervisors.

(9) The state department of education should stimulate progress by means of scientific inquiry and thru the highest type of professional leadership.¹⁵

¹⁵ Strayer, George D., Jr. *Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Public Education*. Contributions to Education, No. 618. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. p. 112-17.

Beyond these guiding principles and the necessary supporting legislation there still remain the human factors. How can existing staffs of state departments of education improve their programs of leadership?

Improvement of instruction—For years several states have had systematic programs for the improvement of instruction in rural areas. The descriptions of the programs show that cooperation with local and county superintendents has been extensive. In Minnesota the state has assumed most of the expense of teachers institutes, and representatives of the state department are available for individual conferences, school visits, teachers meetings, and community work. District supervisors are provided by the state in Missouri. They work with county superintendents in visiting schools, holding schoolboard conferences, and giving demonstration lessons. North Dakota has employed demonstration teachers to help rural teachers with their problems. The attitude of the state office has been expressed as follows: "The county superintendent is . . . the 'key' to the situation; his willingness and ability to work with the [state] demonstrator, to make careful preliminary plans, and to vision the possibilities of the week of intensive supervision make for success or failure of the work in his county."¹⁶ Idaho and Maryland have also had comprehensive state-directed programs for the improvement of instruction.¹⁷

Improvement of administration—An example of state leadership in the Middlewest is the annual conference of certain boards of education and school administrators. The program of the Sixth Annual Conference in Iowa (Figure XXV) indicates the possibility of coordination of leadership thru the efforts of the state department. Similar programs are outlined under "lay leadership" in Chapter XIII.

The foregoing Conference was attended by schoolboard members, county superintendents, town and city superintendents, and members of the state department. The Conference was not so much a convention as it was a workshop. Committees studied everyday problems and issued reports which will guide practice for many years.

¹⁶ Reynolds, Annie. *Certain State Programs for the Improvement of Rural School Instruction*, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 21.

¹⁷ Regional meetings in Maryland are described in the following: National Education Association. Department of Superintendence. *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*. Eighth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1930. p. 259-62.

State of Iowa
Department of Public Instruction
Des Moines

SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
for
Boards of Education and School Administrators

Tuesday, March 29, 1938
Savery Hotel, Des Moines

PROGRAM

- 9:45 a.m. Introductory Remarks, Agnes Samuelson, state superintendent, Iowa
- 10:00 a.m. "Creating Better Conditions for Our School Children," Dr. Eugene B. Elliott, superintendent of public instruction of Michigan
- 10:45 a.m. "Special Clauses in Teachers' Contracts," Mrs. Merle C. Knight, president, board of education, Decorah, (Chairman of Committee)

Luncheon

Presiding, Chas. E. Miller, president, Iowa Association of School Boards

"The Centennial in Iowa Schools," Dr. F. C. Ensign, professor of education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City

- 1:45 p.m. "What Our Schools Need Most"
By representatives of the--
1. Public - C. W. Bond, secretary of Chamber of Commerce, Burlington
 2. Parents - Mrs. C. C. Collester, president, Iowa Congress of Parents and Teachers, Spencer
 3. Boards of Education - Rev. L. G. Krebs, Board of Education, Davenport
 4. Teachers - Dr. Barton Morgan, president, Iowa State Teachers' Association
- 3:00 p.m. "The School Board in Action," Dr. Eugene B. Elliott

FIGURE XXV.—CONFERENCE FOR SCHOOLBOARD MEMBERS
UNDER AUSPICES OF STATE DEPARTMENT

Improvement of Professional Leadership

As pointed out in Chapter II, a school system need not be a large one to be a good one. It should be evaluated according to the manner in which it is serving the needs of its community and how efficiently it is utilizing the financial and other resources at its command. Worthy educational leadership, both lay and professional, will organize a small school system to do its own task as best it can, and will appropriate practices found in large systems only when they are suited to its conditions and purposes. A small school system can be made a better school system thru the leadership of those in charge, and the following factors are offered as some of the channels thru which it may be strengthened.

(1) *Develop a conception of the basic functions of a good school for a particular community and organize the local system to perform these functions*—There is nothing inherently sacred about existing organizations. Any type of procedure should be justified only because it can accomplish a particular task better than any other means.

(2) *Establish attractive teaching positions*—The feeling that service in the small system is merely preparation for advancement to a large system is in some part due to the fact that educational leaders have not made teaching in a small system more attractive. It is within the power of the local board of education and the superintendent of schools to make teaching in their own school system so attractive that promising teachers will seek admission and will want to continue to serve. The differential in salaries between small and large school systems is a false measure of their significance. Teachers who have been trained for particular fields are usually more contented and successful when assigned to these fields. The organization of a program of studies should take this factor into consideration. Wholesome relationships between the teaching staff and the people of the community can be cultivated so that each will enjoy the companionship and uplift of the other.

(3) *Give more attention to the improvement of instruction*—Emphasis on features of a school system other than instruction is all too frequent. The wise educational leader will keep in close touch with what is happening to the boys and girls in his school system

and will make it possible for his teachers to center their efforts upon the instructional program of the school.

(4) *Acquire better training for educational leadership*—While training is but one factor in educational leadership, its dominating importance cannot be overemphasized. Unfortunately, present levels are too low and this is particularly true in our small school systems. Much progress has been made in this direction in recent years thru legislation, but the obvious conviction is that a school system need not depend upon the state legislature to set the standards of training for its own teachers. It may have its own standards and take particular pride in them. Worthy educational leadership will initiate opportunities for the continued training of the teaching staff after it has been organized and assigned to its tasks. It is a happy combination when the interests of a teaching staff are focused upon a study of problems which both promote the welfare of the school and stimulate the professional growth of teachers.

(5) *Acquaint the public with problems of the school*—In too many school communities there is the feeling that the existing school system is a good one. Whether or not the proper standards are being used, a community will evaluate its own school system in one way or another. The problem of interpreting education to the public is not completed with a few interesting facts regarding the local schools and some possible directions in which they may be superior to other schools. The people of a community deserve an honest acquaintance with conditions in their own schools and will approve of those who deal frankly with them.

(6) *Provide higher remuneration for the teaching profession*—While the salary paid a teacher is related to a number of other factors it must be considered as a determinant in the welfare of a school system. It is unfortunate that the teaching profession does not attract and retain a larger proportion of our most competent and successful individuals. Many of our small school systems do not have the financial resources to purchase the type and the quality of educational service they need. The answer to such situations is to supplement local funds with equalization aid drawn from larger units as discussed in Chapter XIV.

(7) *Obtain increased assistance from state departments of education*—State departments of education have a particular responsibility to the small school systems. Most of these systems are unable to provide such essential services as planning of school buildings, organization of systems for financial and child accounting, development of cooperative supervisory programs, and many others. It should be possible for a school system to secure thru the state department of education any assistance needed in the solution of its problems. Much can be done when the need is recognized, thru increased appropriations for state departments and the selection of chief state school officials thru professional rather than political channels.

(8) *Adopt sound financial policies*—Thruout this discussion, emphasis has been placed upon the wise use of existing funds. This result can be brought about only by the careful construction of a detailed financial budget for the school system which is consistently followed from year to year. Thru such a budget the financial resources of a school system will be used to the best advantage and their distribution balanced according to the recognized needs of the schools. Consult Chapters XIV, XV, XVI, and XVII of this year-book.

(9) *Work for larger administrative and attendance units*—In many parts of the country existing school systems are so small that they cannot provide an effective educational program which is worthy of the children to be served. The obvious answer to this problem, within the criteria suggested in Chapter IX, is the establishment of larger units which will provide a more complete program and at a cost which can be met. If the amount of money and energy which is now being distributed to larger numbers of isolated units could be concentrated in a smaller number of adequate units, the immediate result would be a stronger program which the community as a whole would approve.

CHAPTER XII

Development of Public Relations

SCHOOLS like most public agencies require community goodwill. As one schoolboard member put it, "It is far better to build up in advance an attitude on the part of the public of swearing by the schools than at the school tax rate."¹ Obviously to attain this result there must be intelligent use of the various channels of publicity and interpretation.² But if these technics are to be used with greatest effectiveness they must be part of a planned program. Planning is the crux of the whole matter. Without clean-cut thinking thru the program there will be costly mistakes, shortages, and misunderstandings. No one can suggest how to avoid all errors but the purpose of this chapter is to outline some of the most important phases of interpretation in small communities. For further discussion of publicity methods and technics reference should be made to the available literature in this field.³

Some Basic Principles To Keep in Mind

In most small communities the leadership in a program of interpretation falls upon the superintendent of schools. Unlike the superintendent in the large city he does not have a publicity director or even a research director to organize the necessary facts. Otherwise his situation is not greatly different. He does have a public with which to cooperate, a school program to interpret, a board of education to represent the schools before the people, newspapers and other media thru which to operate, and teachers and pupils to carry constructive information to all parts of the district. The elements are present, demanding only systematic and intelligent attention.

¹ Mulford, Herbert B. *A Primer on Public Relations for Public School Administration*. Winnetka, Ill.: the Author. (Mimeo.)

² The Commission acknowledges with thanks the assistance of the following persons in the preparation of this chapter: R. F. Campbell, Preston, Idaho; Mrs. W. I. Cox, Morgantown, W. Va.; W. W. Coy, Fort Recovery, Ohio; Kathryn V. Cramer, Morgantown, W. Va.; J. N. Deahl, Morgantown, W. Va.; W. T. Jones, Ballston Spa, N. Y.; Carl and Cecile Kumpf, Egertsville, N. Y.; J. N. Quarles, Ash Grove, Mo.; James C. Sanford, Monclova, Ohio; and Chester E. Morris, Washington County, Kans.

³ For example: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Twelfth Yearbook*, 1934. p. 211-56. Also, *Fifteenth Yearbook*, 1937. p. 164-202. ¶ Moehlman, Arthur B. *Social Interpretation*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. 485 p. ¶ Grinnell, J. Erle. *Interpreting the Public Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937. 360 p. ¶ Farley, Belmont. *School Publicity*. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1934. 118 p. ¶ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Principal and His Community*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1932. 621 p. ¶ Hunkins, Ralph V. *The Superintendent at Work in Smaller Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931. 401 p. ¶ Langhitt, R. E.; Cyr, F. W.; and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Co., 1936. 660 p.

Before beginning to apply specific publicity technics to the situation the superintendent should give considerable thought to certain basic principles. Among these factors are the following:

(1) *There must be something worth interpreting*—The first step in sound public relations is to organize and to direct a good school system. All the publicity that may be devised by the cleverness of a genius cannot convince the public indefinitely that an inefficient school system is a community asset.

(2) *The educational program should be clearly stated*—The public will tend to have confidence in a school system which seems to know where it is going. Uncertainty and doubt as to how tax money is being spent leads often to revolt. In cooperation with the board of education the superintendent should outline a long-time educational program for the district.

(3) *Educational interpretation is a two-way process*—The superintendent and the teachers should assume that the public is as interested in the schools as they are. Laymen like to have the opportunity to advise and to suggest on educational matters. Opportunities must be provided for lay participation and discussion. Interpretation, like learning, is a "give and take" activity.

(4) *Coordination must be systematically provided*—There needs to be unity of purpose among those who speak and act for the schools. Without general understanding of the interpretation objectives, speeches, newspaper articles, or even classroom activities may appear to contradict the public relations program.

(5) *Continuous verification and testing of procedures are essential*—No program of interpretation can be so carefully planned as not to require continuous observation and adjustment. Attention should be given to the trends of public opinion, the timeliness of appeals, the suitability of various media, and the apparent effects upon the various "audiences" in the community.⁴

With these ideas in mind, altho his other duties may be urgent, the superintendent may well meditate concerning how he may understand the interests of his community and enlist the interest of its citizens in meeting its needs, and what media of publicity are available and how they may be utilized to the best advantage.

Learning the Interests and Needs of the Community

The school is one of the best institutions in which the interests and energies of all the people of the community may be centered. In politics, people are divided into different parties; in religion, they are divided into different sects; and in social relations, they have a

⁴ Peck and Stevenson found that the groups most interested in education were the families with children in the schools, the business and professional classes, the women's clubs, and the skilled laborers. What can be done to enlist other groups? See: Peck, R. R., and Stevenson, P. R. "Rural Publicity." *Educational Research Bulletin (Ohio State University)* 2: 318; November 28, 1923.

tendency to divide themselves into non-cooperating groups. In the public school, however, there are so many areas of mutual interest that there is no question that most of the citizens of a small town may become interested.

As a background of the public relations program the superintendent needs to examine the elements of the community, including not only the physical environment but the characteristics, hopes, and fears of the children and adults. He should come to know the economic and social conditions under which the people live, their nationalities, their religious background, their social groupings, their ethical tendencies, and their needs.

Among the procedures for discovering the needs and interests of the community are (a) the community survey, (b) public forums, and (c) home visitation. These three procedures offer many opportunities for constructive contacts among laymen, teachers, and students.

Community survey—In order to integrate the activities of the school and the community, both informal and formal surveys should be made of local conditions. These surveys should include the status of preschool children and of those in the elementary school, high school, and adult life. Other factors such as business trends, economic status of the people, nationalities, religious backgrounds, community organizations (such as lodges, youth organizations, and parent-teacher groups), occupational interests, and social activities should be made a part of the survey. With these data at hand upon which to formulate an intelligent school-community program, the school should include in the curriculum provision to meet the most urgent needs of its people.⁵

While the necessity for making the survey to determine the important factors to be considered in the community-school program is apparent, this survey need not be too technical or embrace too many factors for practical use by the school. If a sociological survey can be made by a competent authority it may be carried out in much detail, giving valuable information to be used by the school. Such a survey was made by Sanderson in his study on *Rural, Social, and Economic Areas in Central New York*.⁶ However, for practical

⁵ Moehlman, Arthur B. *Social Interpretation*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938. 485 p.

⁶ Sanderson, Dwight. *Rural, Social, and Economic Areas in Central New York*. Bulletin No. 614. Ithaca, N. Y.: Agricultural Experiment Station, Cornell University, June 1934.

purposes a survey made by the principals and teachers will prove most effective. Ways of making community surveys are set forth in several references cited in Chapter VI.

Public forums—The organized public discussion method has developed in recent years as an effective device for developing an exchange of ideas concerning schools. The possibilities are almost unlimited for bringing together the representatives of various points of view. Panel discussions by laymen and educators can be made enlightening to both groups. Members of curriculum committees can propose questions for public examination which have proved to be perplexing to them. Eventually this procedure should tend to establish the habit of free discussion. As suggested earlier in this chapter, there needs to be "a give and take" in educational interpretation and the forum is one way of bringing this about.

Among the subjects which may be discussed to advantage are the following: school legislation, taxation, crime prevention, character education, employment opportunities for youth, administrative problems of governmental agencies, controversial topics in social studies, recreation, and vocational education. Other topics are suggested by the illustrative pages reproduced from the study group book of Iowa, *Better Schools for Iowa* (see Figure XXVI).⁷

The success of public discussions depends in no small measure upon adherence to tested procedures. The available literature in the field can be obtained at relatively little cost.⁸

Home visitation—A most important method of school interpretation is effected by means of a program of home visitation conducted by the principal and the teachers.⁹ Perhaps no method of creating goodwill is more lasting than periodical visits to the homes of the children. How will the teachers know the problems of the home and the child without seeing them firsthand? If a program of home visitation is seriously put into effect, the principal and teacher will gain first-

⁷ Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. *Better Schools for Iowa*. Des Moines: the Department, 1938. 20 p.

⁸ National Education Association and Department of Superintendence, Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. *Evaluating the Public Schools*. Published for the Commission by Phi Delta Kappa Fraternity. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1934. 48 p. ¶ American Association of University Women. *The Panel Method of Conducting Discussion*. Washington, D. C.: the Association. ¶ Ewing, Robert L. *Methods of Conducting Forums and Discussions*. New York: Association Press, 1926. 43 p. ¶ Fansler, Thomas. *Discussion Methods for Adult Groups*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1934. 149 p.

⁹ For suggestions on how to proceed, consult: National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Principal and His Community*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1932. Chapter IV, p. 227-62.

Better Schools for Iowa

A Guide for Study Groups

BETTER SCHOOLS FOR IOWA

The people of the State of Iowa are interested in their public schools because they have such a large part in the growth and development of boys and girls. They are the basis of the character which the State builds on the basis of that education and the possibilities for greater service to other citizens.

1. That the people of Iowa are interested in their public schools because they have such a large part in the growth and development of boys and girls.
2. That the people of Iowa are interested in their public schools because they have such a large part in the growth and development of boys and girls.
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10. That the people of Iowa are interested in their public schools because they have such a large part in the growth and development of boys and girls.

1. Should the school solicit the support of various community organizations?
 2. How can all the people of the community be mobilized in the support of its schools?
 3. Why should the people of the state unite to plan for better schools?
- See references 31; 57; 58; 52)

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Many people who are making a study of the educational problems included in the foregoing outlines will want to supplement their knowledge of these problems by reading and study. The following list of sources has been prepared for groups; some of the references which are most easily available. They contain material in a number of questions listed and to many others which will answer the needs of groups. Additional sources will be suggested upon request.

These materials are grouped according to the agencies from which they may be obtained. Where no price is given it may be assumed that the publication may be secured without cost from the address shown. The only publications on this list which are available from the department of public instruction are those which it has issued. Requests for others should be directed to the publishers as indicated below.

- I. State and Federal Offices
 - A. Board of Educational Examiners, State House, Des Moines
 1. *Getting People Ready to Teach*. 1936
 2. *Teachers of the Public Elementary and Secondary Schools: A Summary*. 1930
 - B. Board for Vocational Education, State House, Des Moines
 3. *Fraser, P. G. Changes in the Occupational Patterns in Iowa*. Bulletin No. 23. Research Series 2. March. 1935

FIGURE XXVI.—TOPICS FOR PUBLIC STUDY AND DISCUSSION

hand such helpful information as the environmental background of the child, his physical condition, his interests, and his emotional status. Many a boy or girl in school has failed to get along in his work because the teacher did not know his physical defects and home conditions—defects of vision and hearing, injuries received, and unsocial home life—which have been tremendous handicaps to his progress. A cooperative program of this type will make the parents and community leaders feel that the school is intensely interested in the welfare of the children and a bond of friendship will be established between the school and the community. School leaders should encourage parents to consult them about the problems of their children. By working together many corrective measures can be inaugurated for better home conditions as well as for better learning situations in school. Home visitation programs should be most diplomatically administered, and the teacher should never create the impression that he is an investigator, but rather that he is a friend who is interested in the children. Communities in which such a program is intelligently carried out will find the parents anxious to render every assistance possible to the progress of the schools.

In keeping modern personnel record cards, designed to assist the child thruout his school life, the teacher will receive much information which will be of lasting benefit to the child thruout his educational career if he visits the homes of the boys and girls. Illustrations of the type of information that may be thus personalized are shown in the cumulative record cards reproduced in Chapter IV of this yearbook.

Enlisting the Interest of Lay Groups

At least three types of lay groups have a direct and important interest in the school program. First among these is the board of education which has been discussed primarily from a legal and governmental angle in Chapter XIII; second, there are public relations opportunities in connection with the parent-teacher associations; and third, there are the various special interests such as the civic clubs, church organizations, and labor groups.

Board of education—Since the board of education should interpret the general school program to the community, it is most important to keep the members thoroly conversant with all school problems

and programs. Patrons and taxpayers of the schools have a right to know what is going on. In actual practice it has been found that "bulletins of information prepared by the principal for the guidance of teachers, pupils, or parents are always turned over to each of the board members. In this way the board members are as well informed as the teacher on school policies, procedures, and methods of handling problem cases, etc. This method of keeping the board informed has yielded rich dividends."¹⁰

It should be obvious to all school principals and administrators that without a clear knowledge of the problems of the schools, board members may not coordinate their public activities with the program of interpretation. This point has been mentioned earlier in the present chapter. Many problems which have led to serious difficulties and have cost the administrator his position have arisen as a result of failure to acquaint the board with what is going on. The board members have the responsibility of supporting the administrator if he is conscientiously working with his board. Since in most small communities the board members are elected by the people and are responsible to them, it will pay the administrator to take a great deal of time in thoroly informing his board of just what he is trying to accomplish in the schools. Board members who are kept in sympathetic touch will tend to sustain the policies of the administrator and prove to be one of his chief agencies of interpreting his program to the community. The board members and other laymen thru various community activities, such as parent-teacher associations, civic clubs, and community organizations, will be inclined to speak constructively of the school program.¹¹

Parent-teacher association—The function of the parent-teacher association is to understand the needs and the program of modern education, and to cooperate to the fullest extent with all school authorities.¹² As a coordinating agency between the schools and the community, the parent-teacher association has many possibilities. The acquisition of a clearer understanding of what is being attempted in the schools, the evaluation of the program, and the making of suggestions for its improvement are some of the most worthwhile activities. An active parent-teacher association will take an interest

¹⁰ Kumpf, Carl H., and Kumpf, Cecile L. "If Educators Could Choose the School Boards." *American School Board Journal* 95: 24; July 1937.

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division. "The School Board Member." *Research Bulletin* 11: 1-41; January 1933.

¹² Moehlman, Arthur B., *op. cit.*, p. 313-34.

in all problems confronting the schools. As every member takes his place in the society of the community he will be an outlet thru which the community gets an intelligent understanding of the problems of the schools. Every small school should have an active organization of interested patrons who meet with the teachers to talk over the problems of the children and of the community itself. There is no substitute for this type of organization regardless of its name. In any forward-looking program it is essential that interested lay groups ally themselves with the school program and effect a community response for the development of the best plan of work.

In the small community, in order to give a better knowledge of the educational processes which are fundamental either within or outside of the school, a parent-teacher association can cooperate with other groups in a program for general community development. Of special value are lyceum courses, and talks by physicians, psychologists, educators, businessmen, and other authorities in specialized fields.

Civic clubs—Small school systems are located often in communities which do not have many civic organizations. However, most communities have at least one such group. In any carefully planned program of public relations, the school administrators and teachers should be thoroly conversant with the educational aims and purposes, as well as the legislative aims and purposes of existing organizations.¹³ Thru an examination of these aims and purposes as expressed by resolutions adopted in annual conventions, it is possible to co-ordinate these organizations as a clearinghouse of ideas on school and community improvement. Organized groups, such as civic luncheon clubs, women's groups, chambers of commerce, labor groups, and church groups stand for certain principles and attitudes regarding public education. To know these attitudes as expressed will enable the school to take advantage of all the support which can be secured thru these existing agencies. Most of the service clubs have educational committees which are actively interested in the school program and are quite willing to render assistance such as providing aid to the blind, assisting students thru loan funds, enriching the lives of the underprivileged children, and improving library facilities, or health education, or guidance programs.

¹³ In Puyallup, Washington, these contacts have been particularly effective. See *Public Relations Handbook*, Washington Education Association, Seattle, 1937. p. 13.

It is interesting to note that the various clubs listed above have such worthy objectives as: providing adequate tenure laws for teachers, advocating world peace, preserving public health, improving public and school library facilities, sponsoring adult education and forums, developing safety programs, and sponsoring playgrounds. The community can make a tremendous contribution to the schools thru the interest expressed in these worthwhile objectives. The wide-awake school administrator or teacher can capitalize upon the objectives sponsored by these groups in gaining for his school a mutuality of interest in furthering the cause of education.

Orienting the School Personnel

In all school systems educational interpretation is an important function both of the teaching and non-teaching school personnel. This statement is especially true of small school systems where there may be no specialist in publicity and few channels for the distribution of school facts. Thru their individual contacts with children, parents, and laymen, classroom teachers are able to supply information and to shape public opinion. As groups working upon professional problems, teachers also help to develop understanding of the educational program.

Individual interests and contacts of teachers—The possibilities of utilizing the teacher's personal and social contacts in a public relations program were indicated by superintendents who supplied information for this yearbook. For example, in one community of about 5000 population the superintendent is careful to keep the teachers informed:

One of the most important factors in developing in the community an understanding of the school program based on facts is the continuous enlightenment of the teachers with reference to the philosophy of education on which the program is based, and the presentation of data with reference to the school organization, enrolment, finances, etc. The teachers should be encouraged to have all this information well in mind so that they can speak with authority on school matters whenever a discussion of schools is brought up in any social group of which they may be a part. A faculty well informed and ready to give small groups of friends in the community the facts about the schools is one of the best ways of insuring adequate financial support for the schools.

Careful selection of teachers prior to appointment is emphasized by a superintendent in a town of less than 2500 in population:

The first step in getting teacher participation in community activities lies in a careful appraisal of applicants with this in mind. I have selected new members of the faculty with the idea that their academic preparation is not the only criterion of their probable value to the community. The recreational and social activities of our community are kept in mind and the new teacher is appraised for evidence that there will be ability to make adjustments to allow participation in the community activities. The applicant must have had experience in his home community in some of the activities that are of importance in this community. The applicant's home environment and experience are held of first importance.

Some idea of the ramifications of teacher influence is indicated by the report from a city of about 3500 population:

There are fifty teachers in the faculty. Just now teachers hold key positions in the following organizations: Rotary, Lions, Junior Chamber of Commerce, all the churches, Boy Scouts, Business and Professional Women, American Legion, Public Library Board, Public Health Council, Recreation Committee, and the Coordinating Council. In actual practice much of the leadership for the educational programs of community organizations is carried by members of the school staff. It may be presumed that these teachers have earned this leadership or they would not be so entrusted.

Whether he realizes it or not the teacher is interpreting the schools every day. How constructive that interpretation will be depends not only upon the teacher but upon the foresight of the superintendent. Thru participation in the solution of problems of the school system teachers will be prepared for the important task of establishing wholesome school-community relationships.

Teachers organizations—According to studies made of local teachers' groups formal organization is more frequently found in the large cities. However, there undoubtedly exist many informal study, social, and professional welfare groups in even the smallest school system. Among some of the possible group activities of local teachers' associations are the following:

- (1) Publication of a newsletter to members including items about local civic events as well as material of strictly professional interest.

- (2) Sponsorship of public forums, music festivals, art exhibits, and similar events which bring teachers and public together around a common interest.

- (3) Organization of study groups and conferences with competent leaders which will result in feature articles in local newspapers.

- (4) Preparation of notes and articles for the school page of the newspapers.

- (5) Research studies of pupil progress, financial resources of the community,

salary schedules, textbooks, and other problems of public as well as professional interest.

(6) Organization of a speaker's bureau with teachers qualified to speak on various public and professional questions before local lay groups.

(7) Sponsorship of safety and clean-up campaigns which will enlist laymen as well as teachers in community improvements.

All of the foregoing are examples of successful activities. The possibilities are not limited by the size of the community. The key to the situation is the attitude taken by the superintendent and the local board. With encouragement and guidance a local teachers organization may help the administrative authorities to solve their public relations problems.

Applying Public Relations Procedures

The wide-awake school administrator will keep his community informed on the latest developments in his school program. School patrons are always interested in feeling that the school administrator is keeping them acquainted with what is happening in the schools. The public, as a rule, is usually against anything which it does not understand and is equally in favor of progressive school measures which it does understand. Consequently, newsletters, editorials, cartoons, moving pictures, radio programs, and public speeches depicting in detail the progress which the school administrator has made and proposes to make, are excellent devices for gaining the confidence of the people. Among the standard procedures especially recommended by Hunkins for use in small school systems are the following:

(1) Even small communities have newspapers; they should be used. Give the editor the facts about school happenings. If he is not competent to make his own stories from the facts, make some for him.

(2) Keep the board members informed. They represent a much larger percentage of the population than do boards in cities. Their influence as citizens, therefore, has a better chance to be general.

(3) Put on periodic school exhibits, at least one a year. A central exhibit in a large room, such as the gymnasium, gives better focus to the displays and provides a cumulative effect.

(4) Hold special visiting days; people requested to come any time do not as a rule come at all. Let them see how the school operates day by day; use pupils for ushers in corridors and classrooms so teachers may be undisturbed in their work.

(5) Hold evening open-house inviting the parents to come when the pupils are not there, to see and get acquainted with the teachers of their children.

(6) The superintendent should be a public speaker and should use available opportunities to say a word that will directly or indirectly effect a better understanding of and appreciation for the schools.

(7) The teachers should have a part in and should understand school policies; they have their friends and their influence in the community.

(8) The pupils, too, insofar as possible, should understand the reasons for the school policies which touch them personally, to the end that they will be less likely to give out false information about the school.

(9) A good school is its own best advertiser; make it good.¹⁴

Among the foregoing suggestions several merit detailed treatment at this point: (a) publications of the school system, (b) lay and commercial publications, and (c) American Education Week.

Publications of the School System

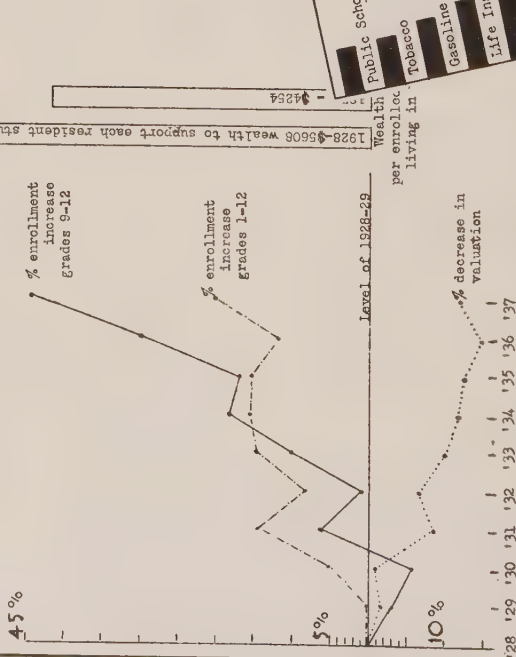
Usually the suggestion of a school system publication brings to mind the annual report of the superintendent of schools. This is of primary importance. There are, however, several other possible types of materials which the superintendent in the small community should include in the public relations program. Among these are the weekly or monthly newsletters of the superintendent and the students' publications.

Annual report—In Chapter XIII the annual report of the superintendent is treated as a medium for keeping the schoolboard informed about the school program. But the annual report should do more than this. It should be prepared in such a way that it can be distributed widely among the parents, reproduced (at least in part) in the local newspaper, used as a basis for public forums and adult study groups, and even read with understanding by high-school students in social studies classes. Offhand this statement seems to be a difficult prescription. In reality the formula has been pretty well said by Joe Lincoln:

If you've got a thought that's happy
Boil it down
Make it short and crisp and snappy,
Boil it down.

¹⁴ Quoted from a communication sent to the Commission by R. V. Hunkins, superintendent, Lead, South Dakota.

COMPARATIVE TRENDS OF ENROLMENT AND VALUATIONS 1928 TO 1938



Whereas in 1928 a tax rate of \$1.75 per hundred dollars valuation would yield \$98.16 to educate one child for a year and pay for buildings, in 1938 the tax rate yields only \$74.44, if 100% of taxes are collected. Enrollments increased while the taxable valuations of property have decreased. In 1928 there was \$5608 to be taxed for the education of each resident student whereas in 1938 there was \$4254, a reduction of 24%. However there has been no increase in tax rate.

Effingham, Illinois

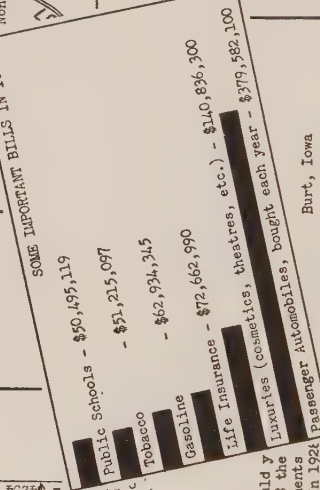
1928-\$5608 wealth to support each resident student

Wealth per enrollee living in

Level of 1928-29

% decrease in valuation

SOME IMPORTANT BILLS IN IOWA



Burt, Iowa

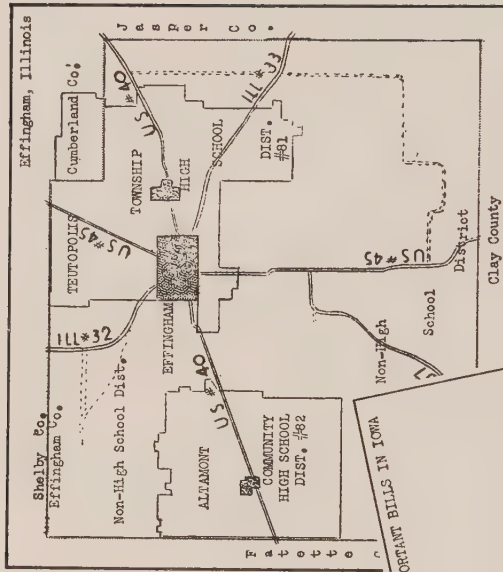


Fig. #2. Map showing relative sizes and locations of districts in Effingham County supporting four year high schools. Note how ideally Effingham is located with respect to transportation for rural students. Also note that expansion of the size of the district cannot be readily accomplished because another high school district completely engulfs District #22. In spite of this condition 113 students from five counties outside the Effingham district daily travelled for their education the seven concrete highways leading to Effingham High School. There were 103 from Effingham County.

FIGURE XXVII.—GRAPHIC METHODS IN SUPERINTENDENTS' REPORTS

Stated in more academic detail the criteria to observe in preparing an attractive annual report may be stated as follows:

- (1) The report should be sufficiently brief that it will be read, and organized enough to show what it is intended to convey.
- (2) While an annual report may embrace a general review of the school system the inclusion of a mass of statistical facts is not as essential as a few brief statements of what such facts may mean to the school. Properly designed graphs and charts are of inestimable value (see Figure XXVII).
- (3) Special problems which have been studied during the past year or projects which have received special emphasis should be pointed out. This list will vary from year to year.
- (4) The report should be duplicated or printed in a neat, attractive, and modest style and a copy presented to each member of the board of education.
- (5) The report should serve as the basis for discussion by the board at one or more board meetings. To bring this about the superintendent should create an opportunity to review it with the board at one of its meetings.
- (6) Copies of the report should be made available to the press, community leaders, and any others who can benefit from reading it.
- (7) The annual report of the superintendent may be the only literature regarding the school system which is in the hands of members of the board of education and community leaders. In consideration of this, the report should give a concise statement of the organization of the school system, teaching staff, plant and equipment, curriculum, financial program, and other topics which are of current interest.
- (8) The presentation of significant conditions and trends, with suggestions for their betterment, rather than self-commendation, should be the sentiment of such a report.

Perhaps from a publicity viewpoint the graphic parts of the bulletin, if attractively prepared, will enlist the interest of the greatest number of laymen. In addition to help to be obtained from books,¹⁵ the superintendent will do well to consult the teacher of drawing. Perhaps help may be given by a talented high-school student, a local architect, or the cartoonist on the weekly newspaper.

Newsletters—Because of the size and infrequent appearance of large annual reports, some superintendents prefer the weekly or monthly newsletter. Usually these are mimeographed in the high-school classes in stenography. When such facilities do not exist, the

¹⁵ For example: Rugg, Harold. *A Primer of Graphics and Statistics*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925. 142 p. ¶ Modley, Rudolf. *How to Use Pictorial Statistics*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1937. 170 p. ¶ See also the publication cited in footnote 2 of the present chapter.

superintendent's secretary, the stenographic employees of the board members, or even unskilled high-school students can use the modern mimeograph stencil. Cartoons and illustrations can be traced by anyone with skill in drawing. On special occasions, prepared commercial illustrations may be purchased which only need to be glued to the stencil.¹⁶

From observation of a number of newsletters, handbills, and other materials issued by superintendents, the conclusion is unavoidable that much of the publicity material could be improved. Special care should be taken with the layout and the clearness of printing. It seems obvious that two pages of clean-cut reading matter are more effective than ten pages which make the eyes water to puzzle out. In other words, in public relations as in trade and industry there is no substitute for quality of the technics of communication.

Pupil publications—Most parents get satisfaction in seeing a school newspaper or annual which the children themselves have prepared (see Figure XXVIII). Perhaps in a few instances small high schools have attempted to imitate, with unfortunate results, the school annuals found in larger cities. Avoidance of this particular difficulty is a matter of guidance; the idea of pupil publications still has inherently constructive values for the publicity program. One of the most helpful discussions of the elementary-school newspaper is printed in *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*, the 1935 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals.¹⁷ Superintendents may also obtain *How to Plan and Publish a School Paper* prepared by the manufacturers of mimeograph machines.¹⁸ Discussions of high-school journalism are also available.¹⁹

Lay and Commercial Publications

It has been said that the oldest newspaper on earth was the *Pekin Ti Chan* which began publication in China during the Tang Dynasty (A.D. 620-A.D. 905). According to the Chinese Repository for April 1833: "The Peking Gazette was generally read and discussed by

¹⁶ Distributors of mimeographs often publish catalogs and numerous illustrations which can be used in reports, school papers, handbills, and other media. Address the A. B. Dick Company, Educational Department, Chicago, Illinois.

¹⁷ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*. Fourteenth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1935. p. 473-500. ¶ See also by the same Department: *The Principal and His Community*. Eleventh Yearbook. 1932. p. 350-59.

¹⁸ Address the A. B. Dick Company, Chicago, Illinois, for several helpful bulletins on how to use mimeographing in the modern school program.

¹⁹ Huff, Bessie M. *How to Publish a School Paper*. New York: Mentzer, Bush and Co., 1924. 325 p.

Washington County School Journal

A Publication Devoted to an Exchange of News and Ideas Among the Schools of Washington County, Kansas

VOLUME 2

GREENLEAF, WASHINGTON COUNTY, KANSAS, SEPTEMBER, 1938

NUMBER 7

COUNTY SPELLING TEAM TO STATE WIDE CONTEST

The following students of Washington County Schools were entered and took part in the Annual Spelling Contest sponsored by the State Fair Association and held at Topeka on Wednesday, September 14, 1938. The Class A contestants were Finke of Linn Rural High, Reva Johnson of Haddam School. Each missed on the first list.

The Class B Contestants Williams of Haddam Grade who made perfect scores on the first three lists, missed on the fourth and made perfect on the fifth, sixth and seventh. This gave her tenth place State and an award of one dollar in cash. Jos Clifton Grade School made score on the first list and word in the second list.

The Class C Contestants Cox of CFF Grade School made perfect scores on all three lists and made

School Exhibits at Washington County Fair

Given in order of rank, amount, district number, school, student and teacher.

General Exhibit of Graded School 1st, \$5.00, 87, Palmer

2nd, 25c, 36, Greenleaf, Velma Martin.

3rd, Ribbon, 13, Liberty, Delores Gross, Lois Latham.

Penmanship—Grade 6

KANSAS STATE TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION

The annual meetings of the Kansas State Teacher's Association will be held November 4 and 5 at the cities of Kansas City, Topeka, Hays, Salina, Garden City, Hutchinson, Wichita and Pittsburg. The State Association tickets cost \$2.00 per ticket and will



THE EAST RIVER MOUNTAINEER



Vol. IV, No. 2

Oakvale, W. Va.

Nov. 9, 1937

SCHOOL MAKES MOVIES

EXHIBITS PLANNED FOR INTEREST OF VISITORS

PICTURES TO BE SHOWN HERE TOMORROW NIGHT

Savoy, Mass. 1938

Enter school Weekly News. October 20, 1938

Monday

Weather - Fair

Muriel got a hundred in Arithmetic all last week.

Robert had a hundred in Arithmetic all last week.

St. Pierre's had company yesterday

Mr. and Mrs. Frank Lagowski also had company yesterday

Tuesday

Weather - Cloudy

It is fifty years ago today that Mr. Fitzroy was married.

Edited by

Lorraine St. Pierre

Mrs. A. St. Pierre has started to work on the tower again this morning for the rest of the month.

There was a big forest fire in Deerfield yesterday

Wednesday

Weather - Fair

The state men are working on the road

The school children made Halloween invitations.

Schools see tomorrow of activities at

Principal taken cones, tra. grade the hletics, 1, and 25. to be tour ght. 30 a nted 4)

the hist- r the in the school. 5 fig- ne

FIGURE XXVIII.—SCHOOL SYSTEM AND PUPIL PUBLICATIONS

educated people in the cities and tended to keep them more acquainted with the characters and proceedings of their rulers than ever the Romans were of their sovereigns and Senate. In the provinces thousands of persons found employment by abridging the *Gazette* for readers who could not afford to purchase the complete edition.”²⁰ Time marches on but the demand for newspapers continues. Few treatments of public relations and publicity are completed without some reference either to the advantages or dangers of schools in the news.

There are various ways in which school news may be handled in the newspapers. In a number of instances as much space as a page is turned over weekly to school authorities. Such pages indicate varying degrees of teacher and pupil participation in the preparation of school news. It is a wise administrator who uses the latent reportorial talents in the school system as well as correlates the school page with the instructional program.

Another type of newspaper interpretation is the superintendent's column (see Figure XXIX). Here the executive has an opportunity to push a constructive policy of enlightenment that will prevent many complaints and promote public goodwill. Hunkins has outlined the philosophy and technics that lie back of one such column:

(1) A newspaper prints news of all kinds but it does not stop at that; it selects certain news or timely topics and treats them editorially. By this method a good newspaper assists its readers in getting points of view regarding selected news that they would not otherwise have.

(2) News items about school affairs are desirable. They make good reading and unless improperly presented effect a better knowledge of the school. But it is impossible to include in the news item, often, any adequate statement of the school objective that may be back of the activity.

(3) Just as commercial, civic, and social news need interpretation from time to time in editorials, so some school news needs similar interpretation. A weekly school editorial column in the local paper provides opportunity for such needed interpretation.

(4) The school editorial column must be simply written. Its purpose is to explain school activities and policies in a way that untrained people can understand.

(5) The school editorial column must never sink to an attempt to defend weaknesses. It must always be positive, never negative.

(6) At times the column may rightly be vigorous and aggressive. Such a time

²⁰ A statement by Walter Williams reproduced in *The American Scrap Book*. New York: Forum Press, 1930. p. 171-72.

OUR SCHOOLS

By R. V. Hunkins

From time to time the need for this school column requires re-statement. Following the column's vacation during its writer's illness last winter and during the summer months, seems to be an appropriate time for such a re-statement.

The schools are a public institution. They receive support from general taxation. They help to train the most precious portion of our population, the children. There is, therefore, far-reaching and deep public concern in the welfare of the schools. Because people are interested they are entitled to know what the schools are doing and why they are doing it.

Another cause for the need of this school column is the misunderstandings that are likely otherwise to arise, about the school and its efforts. One source of misunderstanding is the immaturity of the pupils who attend the schools. These pupils are all undeveloped in judgment, by the nature of childhood and youth. What pupils of immature judgment carry home in the way of news and opinions regarding the schools is not sufficient as the sole or chief source of information about the schools.

Still other notions about the schools are passed from mouth to ear by adults. Not all, but some of this mouth-to-ear information is gossip that may have started well but becomes exaggerated in time.

Certainly public sentiment about the schools should not be left to hit-and-miss and possibly irresponsible information. The welfare of especially a public institution, such as the school, is bound to be seriously affected by public sentiment. It is imperative, therefore, that this public sentiment be based upon as accurate and comprehensive information as possible.

This column is an attempt to set forth in an honest and readable way what the schools are trying to do, and why. Any patron sufficiently interested to read this weekly column should gradually acquire considerable knowledge of the principles of modern education as they are interpreted and practiced in the local schools. He may not agree with all these principles but he at least will have an opportunity to know what they are.

OUR SCHOOLS

By R. V. Hunkins

School Marks

The marking system used in the Lead schools is designed to show not only whether a pupil's work is satisfactory or unsatisfactory but how satisfactory or how unsatisfactory. Some schools have in recent years years adopted a marking system that provides only two marks, one for satisfactory and one for unsatisfactory. The use of such a system results in putting eighty or ninety per cent of the pupils in the satisfactory class. Such a system gives the parent no clue as to how satisfactory the child's work may be, if it is above the low level of being unsatisfactory.

Our system of four letters above the failing mark gives the parent a chance to see how the pupil rates in a given subject or in general as compared with the run of a class group. On our elementary report card we display a typical distribution of grades for an average class of 32 pupils. In such a class as a rule there will be about 2 pupils getting the grade of A, 8 getting B, 12 getting C, 8 getting D, and 2 getting F. This holds for any given subject or for the average on all subjects. By considering a pupil's grades in comparison with this distribution one can tell how he rates in his class, approximately.

A two-mark system does not show how well the child is doing in general in what subjects or activities he may be better or poorer than in others, and the parent may want to know. What is only passingly satisfactory in school may not be satisfactory to the parent. If the mark in reading, or in spelling, or in writing, or in some other subject is comparatively low the parent may want to do something about it. It takes more than two marks to show this relative standing in the different subjects or activities.

The objection that using a scale of marks is undemocratic because it distinguishes between pupils is probably not well founded. This point has been treated in this column in the past and will not be reviewed here. Suffice it to say that children do not naturally worry much about differing in ability from others, either on the playground or in the school room.

might be in defending an action in connection with a student walkout, or with some other emergency approaching a walkout in seriousness. It helps at such a time to have an established medium thru which the position of the administrator can be frankly and clearly stated. Such a procedure helps to offset the dizzy whirl of misinformation that immediately arises in connection with such an event.

(7) Regularly the column should deal, not with matters of immediately serious concern, but rather with those gradual adjustments which the school is constantly making to keep education abreast of the times. These adjustments often break with traditions. Some of those traditions may be cherished by school patrons. Changing from the old course without any explanation of the new objectives is likely to create suspicion if not criticism. Properly written, the column can prepare people for accepting the changes. Not all people will read the column but most of the leaders to whom people look in school matters will read it.

(8) A file should be kept of ideas for school editorial columns. As an idea for a column comes to mind, it can be briefly outlined and filed for reference later when a column is being written. It is well, too, to have a column or two ahead to see how they read after cooling.²¹

In addition to the school page and the superintendent's column, several other possible types of presentation may be used such as feature articles, letters in "The People's Voice" column, advertisements, cartoons, and charts. Ideas as to what kind of copy newspapers want may be obtained by visiting the local plant or by examining the many books on newspaper procedure.²²

American Education Week

American Education Week has wide appeal for the purpose of educational interpretation. Perhaps its universal appeal lies in the fact that within its plans are all the elements of a successful public relations program. For example, there are long-time planning of topics and objectives, adaptation of activities to various audiences, diversified use of publicity technics, and provision for cooperative endeavors by parents, teachers, and pupils (see Figure XXX).

For the 1938 celebration the *Rural School Packet* prepared by the Division of Publications of the National Education Association suggested the following use of exhibits:

School exhibits—Each school should prepare exhibits. The work will be facilitated if a committee is appointed. This committee would have charge of any

²¹ From a statement prepared by R. V. Hunkins for the Yearbook Commission.

²² For example: Bastian, George C. *Editing the Day's News*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 252 p. ¶ Harwood, Dix. *Getting and Writing News*. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1927. 344 p. ¶ Ross, Charles G. *The Writing of News*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1911. 236 p.

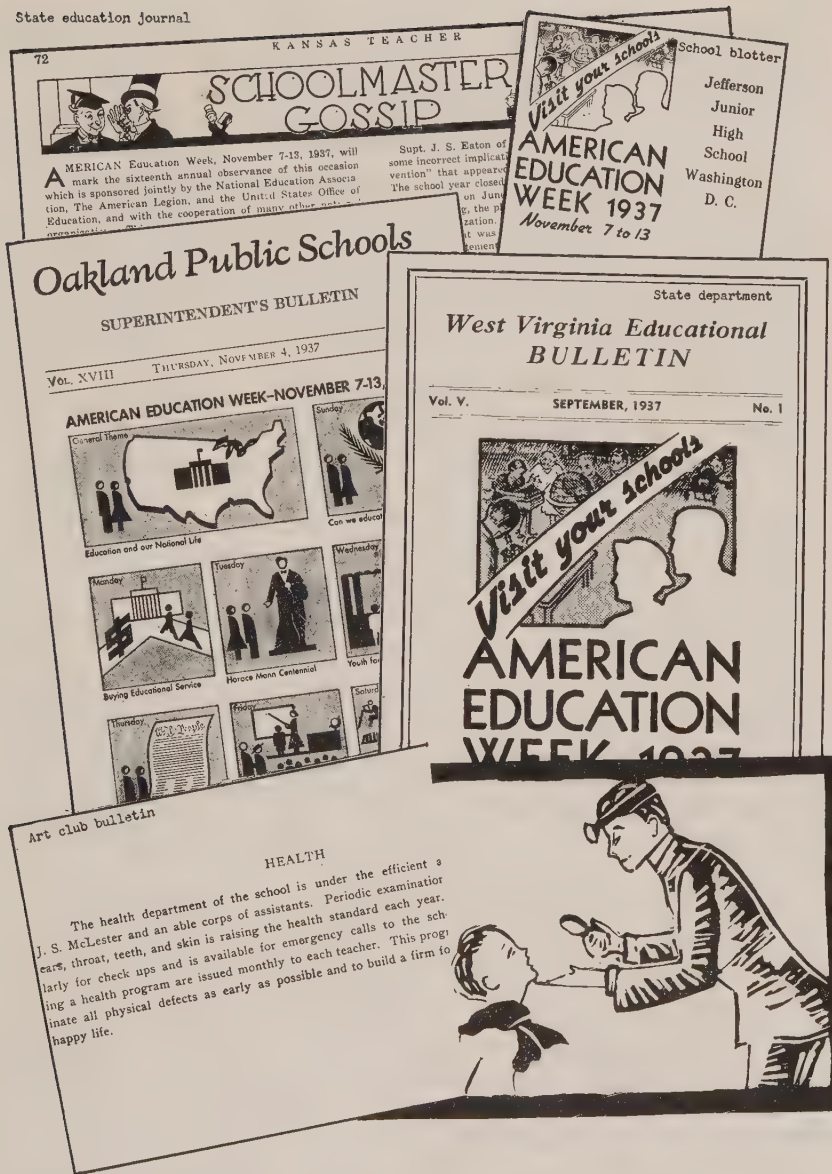


FIGURE XXX.—LOCAL AND STATE MATERIALS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

central exhibit in the school and would make suggestions to teachers regarding classroom exhibits. The following suggestions may be helpful:

(1) The planning of exhibits should be done as early as possible in order to allow time for securing and developing the best ideas.

(2) Exhibits should be built around the ideas involved in the topics for American Education Week. One department may wish to stress one topic while another department stresses another. For example, the physical education department may stress the topic for Monday, "Building Strong Bodies and Able Minds"; the art, music, or English department may stress "Attaining Values and Standards"; while the mathematics and industrial arts departments may wish to stress "Mastering Skills and Knowledge."

(3) A central exhibit in the school would devote attention to all the topics or to those being especially stressed in the school.

(4) Plan carefully the physical form in which the exhibits are to appear. A much better impression will be given if the exhibits in all rooms are displayed in comparable style so that there is clear evidence of planning and coordination. Furthermore, such planning will result in a more clean-cut job indicative of pride and fine workmanship.

(5) Whenever parents are present during American Education Week someone should be on hand to answer any questions concerning the exhibits.

Out-of-school exhibits—Many school systems have found it highly desirable to have downtown exhibits. In some cases, these are placed in large department store windows with the cooperation of merchants. In other cases an entire building in the downtown area is secured for the purpose, such as an armory or an unoccupied business building. Also, exhibits of individual schools are frequently placed in local community stores. These suggestions will be helpful:

(1) Systematize the planning and execution. Make arrangements at the earliest possible date for space for exhibits in various stores.

(2) When the list of space assignments is ready make a schedule showing the nature of each exhibit and who is to be responsible for it.

(3) Enlist the cooperation of the various departments of the school system in the preparation of exhibits from the point of view of technics and appearance such as the art and industrial arts departments.

(4) If you are using store window space secure the advice of the professional window-dressers of the cooperating store.

(5) Be sure your exhibits are well labeled as to the occasion. Stress the fact that they are American Education Week exhibits. Carry posters in them urging citizens to visit their schools where they can see materials like those exhibited actually in the process of making.

(6) Do not crowd your exhibits. A few articles well displayed will do more good than a mass of materials which merely confuse the onlooker. In planning the exhibits, aim to ask those who are to furnish materials for only the amount

and kind that can be used. There will then be a minimum of disappointment because certain items do not appear.

(7) Be sure your materials are carefully and attractively mounted where mounting is required and that an appropriate and pleasing setting is provided for articles which are not mounted.

(8) In store windows it is frequently desirable to adapt the exhibit to the store. For example, the display in a bank window might be different from the display in a stationery store or a music store.

Demonstrations—Many school systems have made effective use of demonstrations as a supplement to or in place of one or more exhibits. The demonstration may consist of a class that is moved into a downtown situation for a day or of students from industrial arts or home economics departments demonstrating skills acquired in the schools.

The human element in such demonstrations is an effective means of drawing public attention.

Other devices and procedures that have proved of use in small cities are the following:

(1) *Message to homes*—Send a message or letter to homes by pupils. This may be printed or mimeographed locally or an attractive general invitation may be purchased from the National Education Association. With this invitation message it may be desirable to send a calendar of events for the week. In some communities a message is sent to the homes each day of American Education Week on the topic for that day.

(2) *Posters*—Display American Education Week posters in store windows, on church bulletin boards, in buses and street cars, and in other places. These can be printed locally, produced by art classes, or purchased from the National Education Association.

(3) *Radio*—Local stations may be willing to make spot announcements in advance of the observance. Ask your stations for a reasonable amount of time during American Education Week. The nature of these programs should vary—some consisting of speeches by professional and lay people and others consisting of music, drama, and other school activities in which the pupils have a large part. One of the advance programs might have a pupil from the different types of schools—elementary, junior high school, and senior high school—extend invitations from the pupils asking parents and citizens to visit their schools.²³

(4) *Community agencies*—Have announcements made at meetings of civic, service, and women's clubs during the weeks just preceding American Education Week. On Sunday of American Education Week, ask the local pastors to announce the program for the week in all possible ways. Special services on American Education Week Sunday will do a great deal to call the observance to the attention of the public.

²³ For detailed suggestions on how to prepare radio programs consult such books as: Lawton, S. P. *Radio Continuity Types*. Boston: Expression Co., 1938. 529 p. ¶ A radio script exchange service is operated by the federal Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

(5) *Stickers*—Furnish American Education Week stickers to merchants for use on their November 1 billing envelopes. Use them on school correspondence and in other ways. These can be secured from the N.E.A.

(6) *Signs*—Prepare large signs for use at entrances of school buildings, on billboards, or on streamers or banners across streets worded as follows:

Visit Your School
AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK
November 6-12, 1938

(7) *Motion pictures*—In many communities the management of theaters is willing to run slides or trailers carrying announcements. An increasing number of school systems are taking motion pictures of school activities for showing during American Education Week and at other times. These are usually produced by staff members and students.

American Education Week has been observed annually since 1921. From humble beginnings it has come to be a national celebration of significance not only to the schools but to our democracy which is dependent upon them for enlightened citizens. American Education Week serves as an opportune occasion to begin or to strengthen a permanent, continuing program of educational interpretation. It is an invaluable phase of a permanent year-round program of interpretation, altho in no sense a substitute for it. During American Education Week there is a national emphasis upon the schools and their problems and achievements which provides a momentum too valuable for local school systems to miss.

Conclusion

Because it can correlate its curriculum with community life, the small school provides unique opportunities for the development of cooperative relationships. The modern concept of education makes the school a contributing influence in the lives of all of its citizens, beginning at birth and continuing until death. The idea that children in school are housed in a building away from their normal environment to learn only unrealistic, formalized subjectmatter is a misconception and has no place in any modern system of education. When, however, the school reflects itself in community undertakings and community enterprises reflect themselves in the operation of the school, the school will become at times a leader and at other times a helpful follower in the life of the community, and the satisfactory public relations of the school will be assured.

CHAPTER XIII

Lay Leadership

UNDER THE BEST CIRCUMSTANCES lay and professional leadership should work cooperatively for mutually acceptable ends.¹

Most superintendents of schools are agreed on that point. Thru the local board of education, and to a somewhat lesser degree thru other lay organizations, efforts are bent to make the school in reality "the house of the people." The purpose of this chapter is to discuss some of the more important aspects of this lay and professional cooperation.²

The Board of Education

Of the many problems submitted to the Yearbook Commission by superintendents of small school systems four appeared to be of primary importance. Restated in question form these problems are: (a) How can outstanding persons be obtained for service on boards of education? (b) How can schoolboard interest be aroused in a modern program of education? (c) What can be done with boards which are unwilling to delegate executive duties to the superintendent of schools? (d) How can harmful and petty influences upon board members be minimized?

Obtaining the Services of Outstanding Citizens

Before discussing methods for the discovery of outstanding citizens, it is necessary to give some attention to the qualities which board members should possess.

Characteristics of lay leadership—Service upon the schoolboards of smaller school systems calls for certain qualities and characteristics which are of general application to all types of individuals. It is to be expected that members of the schoolboard should be people who have the confidence of the community, will judge and act in consideration of the general community welfare, and will have an open-minded attitude on any problem that may arise.

¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Educational Leadership: Progress and Possibilities*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1933. p. 80.

² In the preparation of this chapter, the Commission received the valuable assistance of R. C. Williams, director of research, Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa.

Persons are usually chosen for board membership because they are recognized as representative community citizens who will manage the schools to the best interests of the children of the community.

The following list of desirable traits for schoolboard members which has been offered by Cooke and Cope should prove a valuable guide in the selection of those who are to be the lay leaders in the educational affairs of the community and also should serve as a means of self-appraisal by those who are serving in such positions. Since this list was developed thru the assistance of superintendents of a number of smaller school systems it may be considered as appropriate for schools of this type.

- (1) Recognizes superintendent as head of schools.
- (2) Has an interest in schools.
- (3) Uses good business judgment.
- (4) Has an interest in the community.
- (5) Is intelligent.
- (6) Is progressive.
- (7) Has knowledge of educational problems.
- (8) Is honest and sincere.
- (9) Is cooperative.
- (10) Plans for welfare of schools.
- (11) Is free from undesirable religious and political affiliations.
- (12) Is willing to learn.
- (13) Is community leader.
- (14) Is open-minded.
- (15) Has sense of responsibility.
- (16) Does not interfere with interior management of schools.
- (17) Desires to be of public service.
- (18) Has ability to handle finances.
- (19) Is able to withstand criticism.
- (20) Favors the professional training of teachers.
- (21) Has a good character.³

A glance at the list of desirable traits will show that they are not beyond the possession of every community. No mention has been made of representation of the varied interests of the community. If candidates are chosen in accordance with the foregoing characteristics all interests will be served. Selection on the basis of petty political considerations does not usually insure a governing body which is qualified to provide constructive lay leadership in education.

³ Cooke, Dennis H., and Cope, Quill E. "Rating School Board Members." *Nation's Schools* 21: 34-36; February 1938.

Selection of boards of education—The best interests of a school system make it essential that in every community outstanding persons with recognized qualities of leadership shall be attracted to membership on boards of education, that the conditions under which they serve shall make possible a high type of service, and that those who contribute in a constructive way toward the development and improvement of schools shall be encouraged to continue their membership.

The manner of choosing members of boards of education is undoubtedly a factor controlling the type of individuals who will accept these positions and also the extent to which they may be most helpful during their term of office. It will be generally accepted that the most satisfactory method is a non-partisan election which is held at a different time from other elections. This procedure makes it possible for the citizens of the community to confine their expressions to school matters and to establish a direct relationship between the will of the people and the action of those who are to represent them.

In places where boards of education are appointed by, and related to, other public officials it is extremely difficult for the schools to remain free from domination by irrelevant political interests.⁴ The practice of choosing boards of education for smaller school systems thru the direct expression of the people is workable, satisfactory, and consistent with American principles and the highest ideals of our educational system.

The American system of education has prospered under the democratic principle of government thru lay representation. The success of this principle implies that those citizens chosen to manage the schools of a community shall be its most competent citizens. Conditions should be such as to invite the best talent available to membership on a board of education. In many communities this matter is allowed to take its own course with the result that minority groups with shortsighted or sinister interests dominate, and desirable candidates are discouraged from serving.

In many localities this situation has been met by the activities of various community groups which assume the responsibility of

⁴ See the pronouncement of the Educational Policies Commission in the following: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. 128 p.

seeing that those whose qualifications represent the best interests of the schools are nominated or appointed to membership. At first thought many superintendents of small communities will react unfavorably to any suggestion of *deliberate* efforts to select or to change the board of education. However, a distinction should be made between engaging in petty politics and working openly to influence the attitude of the people who choose the board.⁵ The superintendent can exert a constructive influence by standing for and encouraging others to stand for the best principles of democratic local government. A constructive social viewpoint may be made contagious among a majority of the citizens without chicanery on the part of the superintendent of schools.

Merely to nominate competent persons to schoolboard membership is not sufficient. It is essential that the same groups which have taken the initiative in providing competent lay leadership for their schools shall promote the candidacy of those whom they have chosen, and upon their election, support their actions.

Education of Board Members

One common complaint by superintendents in small school systems is that they encounter great difficulty in interesting board members in a modern program of education. Uninformed laymen are apt to describe modern methods as "fads and frills" which are both costly and unnecessary. To overcome these conditions requires the same patience and skill that the superintendent expects the teacher to exhibit in the classroom. First, the superintendent must assume that the members of laity who are responsible for the administration of a school system are as eager to improve the quality of service which they themselves render as they are to increase the general effectiveness of the school. There is no community in which the usefulness of the work of a board of education may not be increased, and this may be accomplished thru a number of channels.

Experience on a board of education—Whether experience is or is not the best teacher, it is a teacher. To most individuals service on the board of education is a new type of experience. It requires a knowledge of the school system different from that possessed by

⁵ Hunkins, R. V. *The Superintendent at Work in Smaller Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931. p. 6.

most laymen. Thru their contacts with the actual responsibilities involved in organizing and directing the affairs of a school district, members of boards of education have an opportunity to increase their efficiency as they may observe the results of their own policies.

Reports by the superintendent of schools—It is customary in many of the smaller school systems for the superintendent to present a formal report at the close of the year. In many cases such a report is prepared at the request of the board of education while in many systems the superintendent prepares a report on his own initiative. This latter practice is to be commended and indicates a willingness to go on record regarding the work of the year and a recognition of the incidental way in which many matters are submitted to boards of education. Chapter XII indicates in detail how the annual report is an avenue for many desirable possibilities in strengthening the understanding of the board of education regarding its school system.

Since the superintendent has been chosen by the board of education as its professional leader, he should also report to it frequently and informally on the progress of the schools. Without question the superintendent should have the privilege of attending all meetings of the board of education, both regular and special, with the possible exception of a meeting at which the board wishes to engage in a confidential discussion regarding his relationship to it. The superintendent should have the privilege of participating in discussions before the board on any matter to which he can contribute. Many boards make it a definite part of every meeting to call upon the superintendent for the presentation of any matters which he wishes to offer for the information or action of the board. As the superintendent enjoys the privilege from time to time of unrestrained admittance to the deliberations of the board of education he will be able to increase its understanding of school problems and give it the benefit of his professional training, experience, and insight. The following will illustrate appropriate topics for the consideration of the board: (a) long-time plans for the improvement of the curriculum, (b) instructional loads of the teachers at various school levels, (c) use of standard tests in improving teaching, (d) recommended changes in textbooks, (e) implications of a proposed business course, (f) management and distribution of supplies, (g) needed modifications of salary schedule, and (h) status of artificial lighting.

Program

Wednesday Evening, August 3—7:30

Place: Milbank Chapel, 525 West 120th Street

Chairman:

DR. WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University

Speakers:

DR. GEORGE D. STRAYER, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

Address: *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*

Speaker:

MR. GEORGE HOUSTON, President, Baldwin Locomotive Works

Address: *Education in Our Technological Order*

Thursday, August 4—10:30 A.M. - 12 noon

Place: Lincoln School Auditorium, 425 West 123rd Street

Chairman:

DR. HAROLD G. CAMPBELL, Superintendent of Schools, New York City

Speakers:

MRS. HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE, Member, Board of Education, Washington, D.C.

Topic: *The Work of the Board of Education*

Discussion Leaders:

MR. E. W. KILPATRICK, President, Board of Education, Hackettstown, N. J.

DR. CLYDE MOORE, Member, Board of Education, Ithaca, N. Y.

Speakers:

MR. RICHARD T. GREENE, President, Board of Education, Montclair, N. J.

Topic: *The Board of Education and the Public*

Discussion Leaders:

MR. GEORGE M. DAVIS, JR., President, Board of Education, New Rochelle, N. Y.

MR. HARRISON LILLIBRIDGE, Member, Board of Education, Westport, Conn.

Thursday, August 4—12:30 P.M.—Luncheon

Place: Men's Faculty Club, 117th Street and Morningside Drive

Chairman:

DR. JESSE H. NEWLON, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

Speakers:

MR. EDWARD F. AHERN, President, Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.

Address: *The Relationship Between the Board of Education and the Professional Workers of a School System*

Speaker:

MRS. WILLIAM F. LITTLE, Member, New Jersey State Board of Education, Rahway, N. J.

Address: *Preserving Local Initiative in Education*

Thursday, August 4—2:30 P.M.

Place: Horace Mann Auditorium (northeast corner, 120th Street and Broadway)

Chairman:

DR. STANLEY H. ROUSE, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N. J.

Speakers:

MR. H. E. STACY, President, State Association of North Carolina School Boards, Lumberton, N. C.

Topic: *How Much Education Can Our Democracy Buy?*

Discussion Leaders:

1. MR. STUART C. COREY, Member, Board of Education, Glen Ridge, N. J.

2. MR. CHESTER T. NEAL, Member, Board of Education, Springfield, Mass.

3. MR. WILBUR ZIMMERMAN, Member, Board of Education, Ventnor City, N. J., and President of the State Federation of District Boards of Education of New Jersey

Speakers:

MR. FRANCIS J. BRADY, Chairman, School Committee, Providence, R. I.

Topic: *What Education Does My Community Desire?*

Discussion Leaders:

1. MR. CHARLES MESSICK, President, Board of Education, Trenton, N. J.

2. MR. FRED C. KLONE, JR., President, Board of Education, Harrison, N. Y.

3. MR. EDWARD R. SEESE, Member, Deerfield-Shields High School Board, Illinois

FIGURE XXXI.—PROGRAM OF REGIONAL CONFERENCE, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA

Regional and state meetings—The practice of inviting members of boards of education to attend and participate in professional meetings is on the increase and this practice is to be commended. Boards of education should be encouraged to attend local, county, district, state, and national meetings, for wherever they have an opportunity to share in the discussion of school problems they will be the better able to provide desirable leadership in their own locality.

Some of the possibilities for meetings of this sort are:

(1) *County*—Many county superintendents follow the practice of holding a meeting each year for members of schoolboards and officials. When meetings are held under such auspices the official atmosphere serves to stimulate interest and attention and gives a motive for attendance.

(2) *State*—State departments of education realize keenly the position of the board of education in the entire school program and find it desirable to send representatives to meet with groups of board members. These meetings provide an opportunity to explain plans which are being developed for the entire state, to discuss matters of school law, answer inquiries regarding the making of reports, etc. They also give state officials an opportunity to become better acquainted with the actual conditions of local schools and with any special plans that may have been set up for them.

(3) *District*—Schoolboards realize the need for broadening their insight into the problems of school administration and may take the initiative in asking neighboring boards to meet with them for this purpose. In a midwestern state a board of education was prompted several years ago to meet with the board of an adjoining district to discuss the problem of boundary between the two districts. From this first meeting has developed the happy custom of making it an annual event to which other boards have been invited until at the present time five boards of education meet twice a year in this manner. The meeting is held during the middle of the day with the entertaining school serving as host at a noon luncheon. The luncheon is preceded by an inspection of the school plant and its equipment under the guidance of the members of the local board and is followed by round-table discussions of some problem of mutual interest which has previously been agreed upon. Meetings of this nature contribute very much to improvement of schoolboard service, and what may be equally important, to a finer spirit of cooperation between neighboring communities.

(4) *Regional*—In some sections of the country value has been found in regional conferences between schoolboard members and school executives. Effective use can be made both of the facilities and of the professors of a centrally located university, teachers college, or normal school. The program of a conference held at Teachers College, Columbia University, in the summer of 1938 is shown in Figure XXXI. It should be noted that this particular conference included representatives both of small communities and of metropolitan areas.

Organization for schoolboard members—It is obvious that boards of education have many problems in common regarding their own schools. Because of the spirit of public service which prompts people to accept membership on the schoolboard, persons in these positions are conscious of the need for joint action. With this thought in mind, organizations for boards of education are found in many states. One study reports that state schoolboard organizations exist in twenty states.⁶ The most common type of membership is by school districts with at least two states providing for membership in statewide organizations by individual board members. The constitutions of these state organizations point out the following purposes:

- (1) Strive to improve and advance the public schools.
- (2) Study problems of school organization and administration.
- (3) Promote desirable legislation.
- (4) Work for efficient and economic school organization.
- (5) Discuss questions of interest and value.
- (6) Cooperate with all organizations interested in better educational opportunities.
- (7) Stimulate interest in schools by school officials.
- (8) Cooperate with county superintendents, boards of education, and the state department.
- (9) Hold meetings for schoolboard members.⁷

Among the topics which are appropriate for discussion at such meetings are:

- (1) Relation of the secretary and the superintendent to the board.
- (2) Eliminating the competition for tuition students.
- (3) Purpose and operation of a financial budget.
- (4) How to keep good teachers.
- (5) The meaning of economy in education.
- (6) Cooperative buying of supplies.
- (7) Supervision of pupil transportation.
- (8) Long-time programs for plant maintenance.
- (9) Cooperation between schools and other agencies in health programs.
- (10) Questions on school law.
- (11) Value and use of visual aids in teaching.
- (12) Trends in the school curriculum.
- (13) The superintendent as a supervisor of instruction.
- (14) Relation of extracurriculum activities to the educational program of a school.

⁶ Williams, R. C. *Lay Relations in School Management*. Research Bulletin No. 18. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1936. p. 10.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 10-11.



*Then came the laborers home from the field, and serenely the sun
sank*

*Down to his rest, and twilight prevailed. Anon from the beljry
Softly the Angelus sounded, and over the roofs of the village
Columns of pale blue smoke, like clouds of incense ascending,
Rose from a hundred hearths, the homes of peace and contentment.*

—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

*Photograph by
Harold M. Lambert*

- (15) Regulations of boards of education applicable to teachers.
- (16) Procedure for the selection of teachers.

Three county schoolboard organizations of Illinois (Lake, Du Page, and Cook) have developed particularly active organizations in recent years. Luncheon meetings and seminar conferences have been used to disseminate information and to prepare the way for legislative action. Two bulletins have been mimeographed and distributed widely under the titles, "The Education of a School Board," and "A Primer on Public Relations." While the specific conclusions in these bulletins may not be in agreement with the opinions of many educators, at any rate the discussion of these educational questions is preeminently worthwhile.⁸

Thru district and statewide meetings these organizations build up a feeling of conscious responsibility toward their work and are able to mobilize for joint action as the occasion may arise. One of the most universal motives for organizations of this sort is the promotion of desirable school legislation. Schoolboard members can make themselves more effective and render outstanding service to the general cause of education thru such organizations.

Help from professional literature—The literature in the field of education contains many valuable discussions of topics of interest to members of boards of education. They can become more conscious of the needs of a modern educational program and receive much help in the improvement of their school systems thru contacts with such literature. This valuable resource should not be confined to books but may include magazines, special reports, and bulletins. Ordinarily these come to the office of the superintendent of schools who can increase their usefulness by circulating them among the members of his board of education.

One of the most popular issues of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association has been the one dealing with the duties and opportunities of the schoolboard member. Some superintendents make a practice of giving copies of this bulletin to each new member of the board. Books of a similar character have been useful also.⁹

⁸ Other bulletins are in preparation. Information may be obtained from Herbert B. Mulford, New Trier Township High School Board, Wilmette, Illinois.

⁹ Consult particularly: National Education Association, Research Division. "The School Board Member." *Research Bulletin* 11: 1-42; January 1933. ¶ Almack, John C. *The School Board Member*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 281 p. ¶ Mendenhall, Edgar. *The City School Board Member and His Task*. Pittsburg, Kans.: College Inn Book Store (201 E. Cleveland St.), 1929. 104 p.

Boards of education in smaller school systems can well afford to make provision in their financial budget for professional literature for themselves. Subscriptions to magazines such as *School Management*, *American School Board Journal*, *Nation's Schools*, *School Executive*, *Journal of the National Education Association*, *School Life*, and the official organ of the state teachers association will keep them in contact with current thought and progress in school administration. The up-to-date superintendent will maintain in his office a reference file in which literature on various school problems can be readily located for members of his board as needed, and by anticipating questions which are confronting the members of the board he may take the initiative in circulating such literature as he may have on the problems they are considering. In case such literature is not available he should not hesitate to secure it and make it available without formal request from the board.

Distribution of Functions between the Board and the Superintendent

Three of the major factors in determining the relationship between the board and the superintendent are (a) custom, (b) law, and (c) modern school administration theory. Where any one of these prevails to the exclusion of the others, trouble is apt to arise. A combination of all three, adapted to local conditions, should be the goal both of laymen and of educators.

Functions of the schoolboard—The board of education usually receives its authority from the laws of the state and in some instances from a city charter. These generally set up an outline of authority and responsibility within which the board is to operate. In general, the duties of a board of education may be listed as follows:

- (1) Approve the policies and program according to which the board and its professional and other employees shall operate.
- (2) Adopt a financial budget which has been prepared for its consideration by the superintendent of schools as its executive officer.
- (3) Approve the plan of organization of the school system and the relation of the several units to each other.
- (4) Authorize contracts in payment of bills and other matters which constitute an obligation upon the school district.
- (5) Submit to the voters for their decision such matters where their approval is required by law.
- (6) Determine salary schedules and procedure for administering them.

- (7) Consider recommendations of the superintendent of schools with reference to matters which he may deem appropriate or which may have been referred to him by the board.
- (8) Report to the public concerning the condition of the schools, their progress, and their needs.

Undoubtedly one of the most satisfactory ways to avoid overlapping and to fix responsibility is thru the adoption of a series of local rules or regulations. Thru this means the board can set forth the functions which are assigned to the superintendent and those which it has assumed for itself. It should be obvious that when this is done and these assignments are faithfully carried out, an efficient administration will result. The following list of duties of the board of education which was prepared by Carpenter with the assistance of a group of his students illustrates the nature of such a statement.

It shall be the duty of the board to:

- (1) Act as a legislative body.
- (2) Appoint a competent superintendent of schools and invest in him all such powers as it may legally delegate to him.
- (3) Consider carefully the budget prepared by the superintendent, recommend any changes thought necessary, and finally adopt the original or the revised budget when it meets the approval of the board.
- (4) Appraise the services rendered by all employees on the basis of reports submitted by the superintendent of schools and on the basis of reliable information from other sources.
- (5) Debate and pass on policies presented by the superintendent.
- (6) Appoint and contract with principals, teachers, janitors, and other employees who have been recommended by the superintendent of schools.
- (7) Adopt textbooks and approve courses of study, upon the superintendent's recommendation.
- (8) Fix the necessary rate of taxation in accordance with the law.
- (9) Cause to be printed and distributed an annual report showing in detail the receipts and expenditures of each fiscal year and such other matters as may be of interest to the citizens of the school district.
- (10) Adopt salary schedules for teachers and for other employees of the board.¹⁰

The board of education of the smaller school system which is seeking the highest level of advancement for its schools will cultivate a wholesome relationship with its professional staff. It will make

¹⁰ Carpenter, W. W. *Code of Rules and Regulations for Boards of Education in Small Cities*. Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. 7, No. 6. Jefferson City, Mo.: State Department of Education, September 1933. p. 32.

clear its policies realizing that the superintendent, principals, and teachers can do their best work when there is a clear understanding as to the program of the school system.

Functions of the superintendent—Since the superintendent of schools is the liaison official between the board of education and the teachers as well as the administrative representative of the board the appropriate selection of a superintendent is one of the most critical decisions which the board of education makes. The board will see to it that he has been specially trained for the position to which he has been called and his selection should indicate that the board has confidence in his ability to administer the schools in a manner that will merit their approval. After they have established policies they will leave the execution of those policies to the superintendent, assure him of their support, and look to him to develop conditions and produce results which they desire. They will discuss all matters with him openly and have a sympathetic understanding of any possible difficulties which the superintendent may encounter in the development of the school program.

In the smaller school systems the possibility for a satisfactory relationship between the board of education and the superintendent seems especially hopeful. The superintendent is frequently the only full-time administrative officer which the board of education employs. He is in direct touch with every phase of the operation of the schools and matters which are referred to him by the board will frequently be followed thru by him personally. A clear understanding between the board of education and the superintendent as to his authority and responsibility contributes toward successful school administration. A further step consists of the ability and willingness of each party faithfully to observe and respect these limitations either expressed or implied.

In its relationships with the superintendent and in its management of the schools, the board of education will look to the superintendent for professional leadership in the highest sense of the word. Among the things which it may expect of him are the following:

- (1) That he will recognize the proper place of the school in the life of the community.
- (2) That he will refer to the board of education any matters which involve a change in existing policies or new policies and that the board will

have an opportunity to react to these matters before they are carried out.

- (3) That his recommendations will be supported by an ample amount of appropriate evidence which has been honestly prepared and fairly presented.
- (4) That in his dealings with subordinates and with the general public he will encourage confidence in the board of education and the support of its policies.
- (5) That he will wisely and economically direct the financial affairs of the district as far as they may be entrusted to him.
- (6) That in his dealings with professional staff and other employees of the board of education he will be not only impartial and inspiring but firm and reasonable.
- (7) That he will promote the instructional program of the school system in accordance with the best thought and practice and that he will consciously appraise its effectiveness and initiate such steps as can be taken for its improvement.

The relationship existing between the board and the superintendent has been briefly stated by the Educational Policies Commission in these words: “. . . all matters of policy confronting the professional group must be brought to the lay board of education for review and for determination. Once the policy or program has been accepted, good administration requires that the chief executive of the school system, in cooperation with those responsible for individual schools and with the assistance of those who render special services, carry the policy into effect.”¹¹ Under the provision of lay and professional leadership in school administration with the latter responsible to the former, mutual understanding and cooperation contribute in a large extent to the successful work of the school. In a school system which is well managed, the areas in which each is to serve are clearly defined and made the basis for administration.

Developing Unity of Purpose within the Board

Harmful political influences and partisan quarrels have dissipated the constructive energies of many schoolboards. In most instances these difficulties can be avoided by the application of points discussed under the three preceding sections: (a) the selection of outstanding citizens as board members; (b) the education of the board on mat-

¹¹ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Public Education in the United States*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1937. p. 9-10. ¶ See also the detailed pronouncement of the Commission entitled *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy* (fully cited in footnote 4 of this chapter).

ters of modern educational theory; and (c) the proper distribution of functions between the board and the superintendent. However, certain other additional points will be discussed here.

The social responsibility of the board—The board of education is a commendable illustration of representative local government. Altho created by the state and deriving its authority from the state constitution or legislative enactment, members of the board of education are chosen from the locality in which they live to act for the community in the direction of its schools. In this sense they act for the entire community. As Engelhardt has said:

The schoolboard member stands as the representative of no single group. He acts in terms of no selfish purpose; he has no pet project to foist upon the public but appears as the representative of all citizens. He presents the needs of the schools as adopted by his board, and he protects the public schools against manipulation and exploitation. The schoolboard member, thru his acceptance of election or appointment, has dedicated himself to high purpose, to unbiased thinking, and to courageous action.¹²

The work of a board of education should be directed toward the major purpose of developing an effective educational program. A threefold responsibility is inescapable:

(1) The board of education has a responsibility to the children who attend school. Children pass thru a school but once. They do not provide the school environment in which they live but are the recipients of whatever it has to offer. The most important responsibility which a board of education has is to make sure that the children of the community are receiving the kind of education to which they are entitled.

(2) The board of education has a responsibility toward the school area which it serves. People in the school community have designated members of the board of education to serve as their representatives. They are expected to maintain a good school, ask the people for such funds as they feel are necessary, and make whatever arrangements they feel are to the best interests of the children.

(3) The board of education has a responsibility to the state. State laws and constitutions contain many prescriptions which define and limit the activity of the school system. In the development and training of its future citizens the state looks to the school to plan wisely. Since the state contributes to the support of schools, it has an interest in those schools.

It is generally considered that lay management of public schools is most satisfactory and constructive where members of boards of education serve without pay. This characteristic elevates rather

¹² Engelhardt, N. L. "The True Challenge of School Board Service." *School Executives Magazine* 54: 195; March 1935.

than belittles the significance of schoolboard service and in no way handicaps the caliber of the service which is expected. Under a satisfactory plan of administrative organization in which the superintendent of schools is the executive agent of the board of directors, there is a decreasing demand upon the time of board members and little justification for expecting financial remuneration for the service which they render. This point of view is fundamental to the promotion of a high type of educational leadership and the effective management of a smaller school system.

To the same end there is no justification for the appearance of traditional party lines in the designation of candidates for schoolboard office. This statement does not mean that there should be a common agreement among those who seek membership on boards of education. Where school systems are faced with major issues it is to be expected that board members will represent different points of view but these differences should be based upon the particular issues involved and not upon any ulterior or unrelated matters. Such a principle is entirely consistent with the best interests of the schools and continued tenure of public-spirited individuals.

Value of tenure in board membership—The length of time a board member serves may bear a definite relationship to his ability to give effective leadership. Since the great majority of individuals succeed to board membership without previous training or experience in educational matters the term of membership constitutes a period of in-service training which should steadily improve the type of service rendered.

It is encouraging to learn that relatively long terms of service are the practice in a number of communities thruout the country. Vander Naald found that more than 40 percent of the members of rural schoolboards in Iowa had served longer than five years, while the median tenure of 148 schoolboard presidents was 7.9 years.¹³ In a similar study in Kansas, Humphreys reports the average term of office to be 6.7 years with a few serving long terms of twenty-five years or more.¹⁴ Klopp's study of schoolboard members in the smaller systems of Pennsylvania reports equally long terms of office.¹⁵

¹³ Vander Naald, Bert. *A Study of the Social Composition of Iowa Rural School Boards*. Master's thesis. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College, 1933. p. 28.

¹⁴ Humphreys, John E. *A Study of the Personnel of the Rural School Boards of Kansas*. Master's thesis. Lawrence, Kans.: University of Kansas, 1936. p. 13.

¹⁵ Klopp, N. Lee. *Social Composition of the Members of Pennsylvania's Third and Fourth Class District Boards of Education*. Master's thesis. Philadelphia: Temple University, 1934. p. 86-91.

Students of educational administration are generally agreed that a longer term of office increases the possibility of attracting desirable candidates because of the opportunity to follow a program thru its development. It also gives the schools and the community the benefit of leadership which is seasoned thru previous experience. It is desirable that terms of office of different members shall overlap in order that there may be a certain continuity of policy and program without the serious interruption of a complete change in board personnel. Longer periods of service promote unity within the board and tend to minimize the factional disputes which come about thru too frequent elections. It is a wise community that, after selecting constructive lay leadership, prefers continuity of policy to inter-sectional strife.

Codes of ethics—In a number of instances, boards of education have endeavored to raise the level of the services by the adoption of codes of ethics. A pertinent statement from one code has been made in this form, "It is unethical for a board member to seek special privileges or private gain." Other points of ethics have to do with relationships among board members, with the superintendent, and with the public. An analysis of four codes for board members is given in Table 11. Obviously a code of this character, approved and observed by board members, would promote an environment in which factional disputes and political pressures could not flourish. A creed recently developed in California is shown in Figure XXXII.¹⁵

Miscellaneous Sources of Lay Leadership

The schoolboard is the legally constituted representative of the people. It is or should be the spearhead of lay leadership. As Hunkins has pointed out, no matter how apparently weak the board may be, the superintendent will work to establish it as a wholesome and forward-looking agency of the people,¹⁷ but, in small communities particularly, the influence and importance of other lay groups should be of genuine interest to the superintendent of schools.

One of the first areas in which the superintendent will work with these miscellaneous lay groups is the field of public relations. Possible technics in this area have been adequately treated in Chapter XII.

A second area of activity and relationship with various lay organi-

¹⁵ "The School-Board Member's Creed." *American School Board Journal* 97: 18; October 1938.

¹⁷ Hunkins, R. V., *op. cit.*, p. 3-22.

zations is in connection with the curriculum. Many non-school groups and agencies offer excellent opportunities for study by the pupils, as has been discussed in Chapter VI. Altho it will be difficult at this

TABLE 11.—CERTAIN ETHICAL PRINCIPLES MENTIONED IN FOUR CODES OF ETHICS FOR SCHOOLBOARD MEMBERS

It is unethical for	Code number ^a			
	1	2	3	4
A board of education to:				
1. Perform administrative duties properly belonging to the superintendent.....		x	x	x
2. Elect to any school position a candidate not recommended by the superintendent.....		x	x	
3. Employ any candidate except on merit, or dismiss an employee except for good cause.....	x	x		
4. Consider a complaint against a teacher that is not first submitted to the superintendent.....		x	x	
5. Withhold notice of failure to reappoint until so late that the teacher is handicapped in finding another position.....		x		x
6. Keep the public in ignorance on school matters....	x	x		
7. Offer a wage insufficient to cover living expenses for twelve months in the community where the teaching is to be done, or to offer any other unjust or humiliating contract.....				x
8. Offer a position to a teacher who is already under contract without first securing the consent of his present employer.....				x
A schoolboard member to:				
1. Seek special privileges or private gain.....	x	x	x	x
2. Assume authority not specifically delegated to him by vote of the board.....	x		x	x
3. Urge the superintendent to nominate a particular candidate (particularly one of the board member's relatives).....	x		x	x
4. Criticize school employees publicly.....	x			x
5. Disclose confidential information.....	x	x		
6. Fail to cooperate properly.....	x	x		
7. Make misrepresentations in testimonials.....		x		x
8. Place the interests of one group (e. g., one city ward) above the interests of the entire school district.....	x	x		
9. Withhold facts about the incompetency of any employee from the superintendent.....				x
10. Give personal consideration to complaints.....			x	
11. Make no effort to inform himself on school matters..		x		
12. Announce the probable future action of the board...	x			

Source: National Education Association, Research Division, "The School Board Member," *Research Bulletin* 11: 9; January 1933.

^a These code numbers refer to the following: (1) Almack, John C. *The School Board Member*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 235-38. (2) Mendenhall, Edgar. *The City School Board Member and His Task*. Pittsburg, Kans.: College Inn Book Store, 1929. p. 71-73. (3) "Code of Ethics of the Board of Education," *Colorado School Journal* 43: 16; May 1928. (4) "Tentative Code of Ethics for Superintendents and Boards of Education," *Texas Outlook* 7: 16; August 1923.

The School-Board Member's Creed

As a Member of the School Board

I will listen.
 I will recognize the integrity of my predecessors and associates and the merit of their work.
 I will be motivated only by a desire to serve the children of my community.
 I will recognize that it is my responsibility together with that of my fellow board members to see that the schools are properly run—not to run them myself.
 I will work through the administrative employees of the board—not over or around them.
 I will recognize that school business may be legally transacted only in open meeting legally called.
 I will not "play politics!"
 I will attempt to inform myself on the proper duties and functions of a school-board member.

In Performing the Proper Functions of a School-Board Member

I will deal in terms of general educational policies.
 I will function, in meeting the legal responsibility that is mine, as a part of a legislative, policy-forming body—not as an administrative officer.
 I will consider myself a trustee of public education and will attempt to protect and conserve it.

In Meeting My Responsibility to My Community

I will attempt to appraise fairly both the present and the future educational needs of the community.
 I will attempt to procure adequate financial support for the schools.
 I will interpret to the schools as best I can the needs and attitudes of the community.
 I will consider it an important responsibility of the board to interpret the aims and methods of the schools and the materials used in them to the community.
 I will insist that business transactions of the school district be on an ethical, open, and above-board basis.
 I will not buy for personal use at "school" prices.
 I will not consider a position on the school board as a "stepping stone" to political power.

In Working with the Superintendent of Schools and His Staff

I will hold the superintendent of schools responsible for the administration of the schools.
 I will give the superintendent of schools authority commensurate with his responsibility.
 I will expect the schools to be administered by the best trained technical and professional people it is possible to procure.

In Maintaining Desirable Relations with Other Members of the Board

- I will respect the opinions of others.
- I will recognize that authority rests with the board in legal session—not in individual members of the board.
- I will make no disparaging remarks in or out of meeting about other members of the board or their opinions.
- I will recognize that to promise in advance of a meeting how I will vote on any proposition which is to be considered is to close my mind and agree not to think through other facts and points of view which may be presented in the meeting.
- I will make decisions in board meeting only after all sides of the question have been presented.
- I will discourage the use of standing committees and insist that all members of the board participate fully in board action—delegating detail matters to administrative employees.
- I will insist that special committees be appointed to serve only in an investigating and advisory capacity.
- I will consider unethical and will thus avoid "star chamber" or "secret" sessions of board members held without presence of the school administration.

- I will elect employees only on the recommendation of the superintendent.
- I will participate in board legislation only after considering the recommendation of the superintendent and only after he has furnished complete information supporting his recommendation.
- I will expect the superintendent of schools to keep the board of education adequately informed at all times through both oral and written reports.
- I will expect to spend more time in board meetings on educational programs and procedures than on business detail.
- I will give the superintendent of schools friendly counsel and advice.
- I will refer all complaints to the proper administrative officer or insist that they be presented in writing to the board as a whole.
- I will present any personal criticisms of employees to the superintendent.
- I will provide adequate safeguards around the superintendent and other personnel so they may perform the proper functions of education on a professional basis.

Reprinted by permission of Cecil D. Hardesty, Epsilon Field Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa, Los Angeles, California. This creed is an epitome of the written statements of representative school board members and superintendents of schools in the State of California, 1938.

point to avoid the public relations and curriculum aspects, the purpose of the following section is to emphasize lay leadership in the control of public education.

Types of Lay Contacts

It may be helpful at this point to attempt to identify some of these lay sources of leadership in the small community. Every superintendent will be able to recall examples of the following:

(1) *Individuals*—Most small communities have individuals whose word is "law" with many citizens. This individual may be the local banker, the manager of the largest manufacturing plant, the largest property owner, or a retired person of wealth.

(2) *Civic clubs*—Among these are the farm bureau federation, the district improvement associations, as well as the luncheon clubs which include representatives of labor, business, and the professions.

(3) *Churches*—Religious denominations usually exert a wide influence in small communities. In some instances the church as a whole is active while in other cases interest in school affairs is shown thru allied or subordinate organizations of the church.

(4) *Governmental services*—Altho professional workers within their own areas, the employees of welfare, health, library, fire, and police departments are laymen when dealing with school affairs. The mayor, town council, and county trustees also represent sources of lay leadership under this classification.

(5) *National lay groups*—National lay groups operate both thru local groups and in some instances, thru direct influences. Among these organizations are those interested in such matters as patriotism, taxation, business, character education, and legislation.

In many small communities the foregoing lay influences scarcely exist or if they are present their effect is a relatively passive one. Often, however, these lay groups are actively exerting pressure on the school system and hampering the control of the schools by the board of education. One such example is given in the Twelfth Yearbook of the Association.¹⁸ In this case a group designating themselves as citizens and taxpayers presented a petition to the school-board. Among the many demands made were the following: (a) the reduction of school expenditures by 20 percent; (b) the presentation to the taxpayers association of complete reports of the funds, expenditures, and inventory of assets of the school system; (c) the elimination of watchmen at school crossings, nurses, doctors, den-

¹⁸ National Education Association. Department of Superintendence. *Critical Problems in School Administration*. Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1934, p. 104-106.

tists, and athletic instructors; and (d) the presentation to the taxpayers group of stenographic reports on all schoolboard meetings.

The preceding illustration shows the gross ignorance possible among lay groups. More than that, it exemplifies the wrong type of lay leadership. Resistance by the board to such pressures is exceedingly difficult in smaller communities because of the face-to-face association between the persistent laymen and the officials of the school system. Dissension and controversy arising in these cases destroy community unity and work hardships eventually upon the children in the schools. Two general preventive measures may be taken: (a) the continuous interpretation of the educational program as suggested in Chapter XII; and (b) definite effort by the school authorities to develop opportunities for the utilization of constructive lay leadership.

Examples of Constructive Lay Cooperation

The influence of lay groups other than the board of education is inevitable. The superintendent and the schoolboard are faced with the problem of bringing about a unity of community purposes. There are few organizations or groups which cannot become constructive examples of lay leadership. It has been done in many places and it can be done by school officials in most communities where a planned program is set into motion.

Thru the activities of the students and teachers—Several illustrations of lay leadership which constructively support the educational program are to be found in the 1934 yearbook of the Department of Rural Education.¹⁹

In the Whitmel Farm School of Virginia, community rallies were held to interest the people in a balanced community life. Thru a garden party the alumni were interested in improving the school grounds. Thru their leadership of public meetings, the alumni created public opinion in support of a modern school plant.

A small consolidated school in Ellerbe, North Carolina, also aroused a constructive community spirit. Fathers of the children helped to landscape the school grounds. Men of the community formed a company with the boys in the agricultural classes in developing a thriving poultry industry. A market for agricultural products

¹⁹ National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Economical Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1934, 94 p.

was established which not only increased the income of the locality but led to the improvement of local crops.

A class in social studies of an Illinois township high school prepared a local directory with the cooperation of the town council and the chamber of commerce. Lay groups became interested because of (a) the information on religious preferences supplied to the churches, (b) the facts on home ownership made available to business groups, and (c) the suggestions to the local governmental authorities of possible community improvements.

Thru the parent-teacher associations—Lowth briefly reviews the influence of the parent-teacher groups in North Dakota in his book, *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*.²⁰ Numerous new services were added to schools, the term was lengthened, friction in the community lessened, and strong interests developed in educational activities. Lowth presents helpful, general suggestions for cooperation with parent-teacher groups.

The 1932 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals includes many specific examples of the possibilities of lay cooperation.²¹ One section of the yearbook deals with parent-teacher groups. Other sections show the possibility of cooperation with welfare agencies, juvenile courts, service clubs, and the departments of local government.

Thru lay planning councils—An example of how the superintendent can enlist lay leadership has been described by Superintendent Harry A. Wann of Madison, New Jersey. First, he organized a Social Planning Council of representatives of the churches, the welfare groups, the civic clubs, the patriotic societies, and the public library. All religious and racial groups were represented. The Council investigated such fields as public health, recreation, guidance, relief, religious education, motion picture control, and civic planning. An attempt was made to find answers to such questions as these: (a) What are the needs of our community? (b) How are these needs being met? (c) How can these needs best be met? The activity not only revitalized the thinking of the lay members of the city but it contributed noticeably to the coordination of educational efforts.²²

²⁰ Lowth, Frank J. *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*. Revised and enlarged edition. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. p. 227.

²¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Principal and His Community*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1932. Chapter 5, p. 263-310.

²² Reported by Superintendent Wann in connection with the discussion groups of the 1935 convention of the Department of Superintendence.

Conclusion

The board of education is a major representative body of the community. The school is the largest local enterprise to whose support the public contributes. Nearly one-fourth of the total population is cared for daily within its walls. The annual financial investment which is made in a small school system is usually larger than the expenditure for any other publicly-supported activity in the locality.

The importance of this obligation cannot be fully realized until one has had the opportunity to serve on a board of education or to observe it in action. Certain responsibilities are set forth by statute while others may be implied. There are certain problems which appear at more or less regular intervals while others arise because the board either does or does not initiate action which it believes is desirable for the better functioning of the school system.

It is a challenge to the leadership of the board of education to organize the school system so that all of the needs of children are properly served. The curriculum, school plant, teaching equipment, teaching staff, or any other essential should not be created so as to favor or discriminate against any group or class of children. The work of the high school or the building in which it is housed should not be developed at the expense of the elementary school, or vice versa. In providing group instruction, the needs of individual children should not be overlooked. A school system should be planned to serve as best it can the interests and needs of the entire community and should not emphasize any particular level of life or favor any special interests.

Membership on a board of education affords an opportunity to serve a community in a very definite and far-reaching way. Whenever any other objective such as personal gain or group advantage is the motive for seeking membership, the best interests of the schools are destined to suffer. Helpful leadership cannot materialize under conditions of this sort. The responsibility which must be discharged is one which calls for an attitude of honesty and open-mindedness uncolored by any special interest. Truly may it be said that the position should seek the individual and whenever an individual expresses an eagerness to obtain membership on a board of education such eagerness should be prompted by honest conviction regarding important policies rather than selfish gain.

CHAPTER XIV

Financing the Educational Process

THE THREE GREAT PROBLEMS in the life of any institution, large or small, and particularly in a great institution such as the American public school system, are *program*, *personnel*, and *finance*. This truism is so simple as often to be forgotten. The first important question is program. The previous chapters of this year-book dealing with the small school system have been concerned with program. Consideration of program involves what needs to be done for the youth of America thru the public school and for our great American democracy in order that it may be preserved and in order that it may be made to function more effectively. Personnel has also been considered in the previous sections of this yearbook. In the matter of personnel we are concerned with the people who operate the schools and with the working cohesiveness of the individuals comprising the total personnel and aiming for the realization of the program.

Finance is the supporting power back of program and personnel. The Yearbook Commission has organized its consideration of finance into four major phases, each of which will be treated in separate chapters. Combined, these chapters constitute a unified treatment of the especially important elements of the whole field of finance as applied to the small school system. In the *first* chapter of the group the aim has been to present an orientation with respect to the financial problems confronting the small school system. Following the charting of the three main avenues of approach to strengthened financial status, this chapter presents the outlines of important emerging principles. In the *second* chapter attention is directed to the important area of finance planning or budgeting and to suggestions for improving practice within the realm of possibility for the small system. The *third* chapter deals with the major processes of expenditure management, and the *fourth* with the too often neglected area of income management.

Unique Difficulties in Financing Small School Systems

Proverbially the funding of education—the financial support of education—in the small school systems of the country has been far

weaker than in the larger school systems where both population and property have been concentrated. There is plenty of evidence to this effect. In the past two decades we have observed the process of a great many surveys or studies of state aid which have had for their primary purpose the nearer equalization of educational opportunity. Universally these studies have included some weighting of the measurement of need in small school systems. In other words, it has been found necessary in devising a sound distributive system of aid "to plus up," or weight, the measurement of need of small systems in order to secure a closer approach to equalized support.¹ While educational need is roughly proportional to the number of children to be educated, we know that in very small schools the cost per pupil is greater than in large schools. Therefore if a state aid system is to equalize the burden of school support and promote an equalization of educational opportunity, the unit of need on the basis of which state funds are distributed should be counter-balanced or weighted to offset the greater cost per pupil in small schools.

It will be found, by and large, under a satisfactory equalization type of state aid, that in small or rural school systems the percent of total school funds derived from state aid is larger than it is in the large or urban school systems. This is, in the nature of things, just; because the wealth behind each pupil is commonly less in rural than in urban school systems. In other words, wealth and pupils are not proportioned out equally in the processes of social and economic development.

In this connection it ought not to be necessary to state that there are exceptions to the concept that "small" or "rural" means "poor" in the matter of school support. Some small or rural areas are able, financially, to support good schools and some large or urban areas are unable, financially, to support good schools; but, by and large, low supporting ability goes with "small" or "rural." It should be accepted on the basis both of scientific study and of common observation that the greatest, altho not the exclusively greatest, need for the improvement of financial support of the educational process is to be found in the small school system.

Good funding depends primarily upon economic ability; second-

¹ Mort, Paul R., and others. *State Support for Public Education*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education. National Survey of School Finance. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education (744 Jackson Place), 1933. 496 p.

arily upon effort. Effort may temporarily carry beyond ability, due to zeal, sometimes too great zeal; but eventually it is conditioned by ability. The small school system with its too common lack of strong economic ability presents a serious problem from the standpoint of funding. This problem has for many years been the concern of thoughtful people in rural areas. Professionally it has been the continuous objective of the superintendent of schools to overcome the limitations of ability in the small school system and, within a relatively low level of financial ability, to operate an educational program. Toward this objective boards of education and interested lay friends of education have joined forces with the professional body. It is purposed here to consider with the superintendent of schools in the small school system this problem of financing the educational process and to assist him toward an approach capable of overcoming the economic limitations traditionally found in the type of area in which he works.

The superintendent of schools in the small school system usually recognizes the relatively low financial ability to support schools in rural or small village communities. Furthermore, the superintendent of the small school system recognizes and is confronted by not only a low level of economic ability but also a tremendous variation in economic ability between communities. This superintendent is greatly concerned over the matter because he recognizes the importance of adequate funding to both program and personnel and he understands the significance of education for a great democracy. What, he asks, are the best ways of overcoming this low economic ability level and of eliminating the wide differences in ability to support rural and village schools?

At the outset, let us say there is nothing new on the horizon; that is, there is nothing new on the horizon for the great number of superintendents of small school systems who have been alertly scanning the literature of the field and constructively thinking and working upon the problem. Nevertheless, certain promising avenues of attack may well be briefly enumerated with emphasis only upon those that thru trial have given evidence of successful utilization. The search is for a sounder, stronger system of funding education.

In the first place, in this search it is important to stress the paramount need for a better system of finance than that which commonly prevails. System, not administrative procedure, is the key. The task

which is faced here is not similar to that of improving an inexperienced teacher's technic in teaching reading, or to that of the proper placement of children in a grade, or even to that of securing a more efficient business management with resulting economies. On the other hand, the task is more that of providing a better structure for the financing of education. It is not a technical procedural job; it is a planning and organizational job. The procedural phases of school finance we know to be important and these will be amply considered in other chapters of this yearbook. Here, however, the superintendents of schools in small school systems should orient themselves to their function by recognizing that if they are to secure really more adequate support for education, they must recognize the need for a sound basic funding structure. And they must help to attain it.

In the second place it is important to note that the search for this sounder system of funding takes us outside and beyond the narrow limits of a single local school organization. Education is a state function and, by the same token, the systemization of educational support has to be approached on at least a statewide front. Great procedural improvements can be brought about by the superintendent while operating only within his local area; but if he wishes to secure that sounder financing of education demanded by the tremendously complex conditions of the present day, by the broader scope of recognized educational needs, by the increasingly revealed necessity for attention to pupil individuality, and by the effect of mobility of population and propinquity of school systems due to improved means of communication—if he realizes all these things and others in the picture, he will know that his job in the basic funding realm takes him outside his own small system. That is, it does if he is to be in the least an educational statesman.

The search is for a sounder financial system and the field of action is broader than the immediate organization. There is really only one thing the superintendent can do, in the strictly local area, that will be of value in helping to secure a sounder basic system of funding. This is to thoroly acquaint his people, his staff, and himself with the major essentials to the attainment of this objective, namely:

- (1) The strengthening of the local administrative unit thru carefully planned enlargement.
- (2) The strengthening of the basic tax system thru its modification by the application of the tested improvements.

- (3) The additional strengthening of funding which may be achieved by the development of an improved program of state aid, buttressed as may be necessary by the purely collective and distributive resources of the federal government.

Strengthen the Administrative Unit

What condition indicates that the reorganization of the local administrative unit is a means of strengthening the funding system?² There are in this country literally thousands of separate autonomous school districts and local units of school support and administration which render extremely difficult the support of a strong educational program and an effective school personnel. The crux of the problem is usually the lack of sufficient taxpaying ability within the unit to pay for the commonly recognized school needs. Often the problem is the extremely high cost of providing the admittedly desirable school services.

Back of the existence of ineffective administrative units are history and tradition. Units that were well designed for the conditions of a century ago can hardly be considered capable of coping with the educational problems of 1939. If an administrative unit is small and too weak to have within it a sufficient economic ability to meet the educational needs of the present day or to do so at a reasonable unit cost, the logical thing to do is to enlarge this administrative unit and by enlarging it to strengthen it.

The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, after studying the problems of education in that state for a period of three years, has recently released its report. It is not without significance that the first of all the important reports in the New York study dealt with the problem of "improving school district organization," in other words, the problem of strengthening the local administrative unit. In addressing itself to the question of the advantages of the larger school districts, the Inquiry lists as those who will benefit, first, the children who go to school; second, the teachers who teach in the larger schools; third, the taxpayers locally and of the whole state; fourth, the community as a whole; and fifth, the schoolboard, school officials, district superintendent, and state education department. The Inquiry was concerned in part with the proper size of school districts for the state

² For a full discussion of the administrative unit consult Chapter IX of the present yearbook.

and among other criteria indicated that an administrative unit should "contain sufficient assessed valuation and taxpaying capacity to carry the bulk of the school program."³

Considerations such as these make the reorganization of administrative units, urban and rural, essential to the attainment of a sound system of school support. It will not take school support the whole way but it will be a long step. This is one of the sure routes along which the local superintendent of schools and the people of rural and village school districts must diligently work if they are to make any notable progress in the funding of the educational process.

There is one further consideration that makes the reorganization of administrative units a most important means of improving the basic financial structure. Almost invariably the reorganization of administrative units means the enlargement of these units and the merging of fiscally weak units with one or more stronger units. This process, by broadening the base of support, promotes the equalization of the burden of supporting education and, by the same token, promotes the equalization of educational opportunity. Such reorganization is not of itself sufficient to meet the requirements of equalization but it is of sufficient help to commend itself to the interest of all who are concerned with the strengthening of the educational finance program.

Revise and Modernize Tax Systems

By and large over this country it will be found that states which have the best tax systems are further along generally with the problem of satisfactorily financing the educational process. In other words, a good tax system is essential to better funding. Public finance as an applied science has developed, to a generally recognized extent, valuable theories and principles in the field of taxation so that there is no excuse for a state or for intelligent people within a state failing to know the marks of a good system.

But in what sense does the problem of the small school system call for a revision and strengthening of the basic tax system? The local property tax is still the chief source of educational funding. Thruout the country most of the school money in small as well as large school systems comes from this local tax. For example, in New

³ Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. *Education for American Life, A New Program for the State of New York*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938.

York, a relatively strong system of state aid furnishes only 36 percent of the current cost of public education, leaving a high percent to come almost exclusively from local taxation. There the statewide local district millage for schools is 8.1 mills. It ought to be apparent that anything which strengthens and improves the tax system improves the financing of education. While the tendency generally is toward lowering the demands upon the local property tax, at the same time schools need more money and other governmental activities require more adequate support.

In discussing this problem within brief compass it is well to pause here to note that a sound funding system for education cannot be achieved by reliance upon any single line of approach. It is definitely impossible under present conditions and complexities to expect sound funding thru the avenue of the local property tax alone. Neither will the strengthening of the local administrative unit accomplish this alone; nor development of a strong system of state equalizing aid. What is required is a refined and coordinated advance along all the lines open to improvement.

From the standpoint of local taxation there are certain avenues of approach to better funding. The limits of this discussion make it necessary to focus attention upon the most important aspects from the standpoint of schools.

(1) It is of great importance that the general property tax be preserved exclusively for the support of local government, including schools. Yet thus exclusively preserved, the local tax is altogether inadequate in most areas to finance the services dependent in whole or in large part upon local support. *Virtually the only tax base available for the local support of schools and other services is real property.* There is little likelihood that other sources will be made available to any considerable extent. It becomes important, therefore, that state governments cease the taxation of real property, as progressive states have done, in order that the full potentiality of this source may be realized as local revenue.⁴ This means the utilization of other sources by the states and the nation. It is important for the states to move rapidly toward personal and corporate income taxation, to draw upon those sources which are best open to the states, and to recognize the importance of leaving to local jurisdictions the property tax which is natural to them. Furthermore, the

⁴ See: *Tax Systems of the World*. Chicago: Commerce Clearing House, Inc. (Published annually as a digest.)

superintendents of schools and the body of citizens interested in the small school systems of the country should, in the face of movements toward retail sales taxes, look carefully toward the matter of equity and the protection of the common man against a levy excessive in relation to his ability to pay.

(2) While it is important to preserve the property tax *exclusively* for local governmental purposes, it is of vital importance simply to *preserve* it as an instrument of democratic control. Take away the local taxing power from a local school district and the small school system has lost what has historically been its chief power of educational expression. From the standpoint of democracy and in keeping with American traditions, it is very important for local school systems to have a local taxing power. This local taxing power has been so commonly with us that the lack thereof can hardly be imagined; yet in two of our states, North Carolina and Delaware, it has decreased until it is close to the vanishing point. In Delaware, however, the state is so small that on a complete state support basis there is still a certain amount of local-area autonomy. The right to levy a tax and to determine the direction of the application of its proceeds are very closely affiliated with the exercise of local educational citizenship and with keeping the schools close to the people.

(3) A close corollary to the above is the importance of avoiding the insidious dangers of tax limitations. If the right of local taxation is basic to democratic educational expression and to the highest possible degree of local autonomy, it is of equal importance that it be free; in other words, that the citizens of a local jurisdiction be free to determine how high they shall tax themselves annually for the support of schools.

The present era is one of great agitation for superimposed tax limitations. Property tax limitation means the enactment and enforcement of definite limitations upon the right of local units of government, including school districts, to tax themselves. Constitutional limitations are more dangerous than statutory limitations because the constitution is more static. Educational support requires flexibility as well as adequacy. The tax-limitation movement is, without doubt, the most serious present tax menace to the sound funding of the educational process in a democracy and in a day and age of hitherto unapproached educational needs.

The literature on the tax-limitation problem is plentiful. It should

be studied from both the pro and the con angle. Tax authorities, however, as well as students of government and education, almost universally line up as opposed to tax limitation, either constitutional or statutory. The best of the literature relates to the study of what actually happens in states where the limitation statutes or constitutional provisions prevail. The following is a condensed summary of arguments against tax limitation originally published by the New York State Teachers Association.

(1) Tax limitation is centralized control by a state government; it destroys local control and local initiative. Under tax limitation communities are reduced to a dead level. They cannot have the kind of government and education which they want and are able to pay for.

(2) Tax limitation prevents progress and improvement. By taking away local tax leeway, it takes away the right of progressive communities to tax themselves in order to make adjustments or changes to meet new needs.

(3) Tax limits are too rigid to provide for the varying needs of different communities. Tax needs not only vary among communities according to their geographic location, density of population, and other factors but they also vary from year to year within the same community. Tax limitation is like trying to make all men wear the same size shoes from babyhood to old age.

(4) Constitutional tax limitation ties the hands of future generations. An inflexible tax rate which has no basis in fact should not be incorporated into a constitution. A constitution should deal only with broad general principles, such as that of giving the legislature the power to limit local taxes. Even if it were known for certain what the maximum tax on property should be at the present time, such a rate would not necessarily hold true in the future. Therefore, the details of how taxes should be limited is a matter for the legislature, not the constitution.

(5) Constitutional overall tax limits make taxes in one unit of government dependent upon taxes in every other unit of government serving the same area. It is like punishing the whole class because Willy made a face at the teacher.

(6) Most constitutional overall tax limits which have been proposed are too low to serve as a "tax ceiling." They are a subterfuge for reducing taxes below the level approved by the majority of citizens in the various communities.⁵

Tax limitation distinctly differs from debt limitation. The citizens of a locality may not express changes in opinion annually in relation to bonded indebtedness once it has been incurred. It is more justifiable, therefore, to place limits on local debt incurring power. Local voters may annually regulate their tax levy in the face of seen conditions, contracting or expanding as needs and resources dictate.

⁵ New York State Teachers Association. *Tax Reduction Versus Tax Limitation*. Public Information Service Circular No. 13. Albany: the Association, March 1937. p. 1. (Mimeo.)

The subject is too broad to go into thru any very extensive treatment at this point but it is important for the superintendent of schools to know the pros and cons of the tax limitation issue. With the general property tax as virtually the sole means at the control of the local community for the raising of funds for schools and, thru such funding, to express itself as to the extent to which it wishes to support education, this tax base comes to be in and of itself one of the last strongholds of local autonomy in education. For a people to hedge themselves about with these limitations on this present right of theirs to raise their own money for the support of their own schools is for them to foreshorten their own confidence in democracy and in education as the strengthening influence of democracy.⁶

(4) In the field of local tax administration one of the important areas for improvement is that of property valuation. It is a fact that the term "assessed valuation of property" is such a variable from state to state or from district to district within a state that figures representative of assessed valuation as a measure of local taxpaying ability mean little. For this reason most studies of state aid, where a measure of local ability is required, recommend the establishment of equalized valuations, or ratios from which they may be derived, from assessed valuations.⁷

The important thing to emphasize here is the need for improved assessment of property at the source thru the application of more effective means of establishing valuations. The local property tax will become more stable and more equitable when the valuations made by assessors come, thru the use of scientific methods, to represent more nearly the actual or true values.

(5) Another important avenue of improvement is that of strengthening the process of tax collection. During the depression, as well as in less abnormal times, tax delinquency has had a marked effect upon the support of education. Many a school system would have weathered the depression in a much more substantial fashion if it had been able to collect the taxes it had a legal right to levy.

⁶ The following references are among the best of a large list and themselves contain further bibliographical references: Public Administration Service. *Property Tax Limitation Laws*. No. 36. Rev. ed. Chicago: the Service (850 E. 58th St.), 1936. 96 p. ¶ Public Administration Service. *Tax Limits Appraised*. No. 55. Chicago: the Service (850 E. 58th St.), 1937. 40 p. ¶ National Municipal League. "Real Estate Tax Limitation and Its Effects." *National Municipal Review*. New York: the League (309 E. 34th St.), November 1935. ¶ Tax Policy League. *Taxbits*. New York: the League (309 E. 34th St.), December 1933, February 1935, October 1936.

⁷ See: Cornell, Francis G. *A Measure of Taxpaying Ability of Local School Administrative Units*. Contributions to Education, No. 698. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. 114 p.

Efficiency in tax collection varies as much as ability to support schools. All sorts of systems are in existence in this country for the regulation of the collection of property taxes. In this matter of tax collection we are not so much concerned with the collection of state levied taxes as we are with the collection of the general property taxes, levied for the support of local functions of government and of schools. Superintendents of schools should study intimately this problem of tax collection. No local superintendent in the small school system should be without a detailed record of property assessments, tax levies, and tax collections in his districts. If every superintendent of schools in a small school system thruout the United States were to survey the effectiveness of tax collection machinery and the magnitude of tax delinquency and report the same thru some clearinghouse, a vast body of very important information bearing upon the financing of education would be brought to light. In such a process both school people and interested citizens, if they participate, would begin to search about for some protective measures which would bring about a higher percentage yield toward school support of those tax revenues which were anticipated by the people when they voted to tax themselves for schools.

New York's experience with school tax collection is worth considering. After the school district tax is levied, the tax warrant is placed in the hands of the district tax collector for collection. If, at the end of the tax collection period, any school taxes remain unpaid, these are required to be officially reported to the county treasurer. This is called "returning" the taxes and the unpaid taxes so reported are referred to as "returned" taxes. It then becomes the duty of the county to pay to the school district the amount of these "returned" tax claims. In other words the county's function is to guarantee and consummate full tax payment to the school district. The county thereafter goes thru the process of enforcing payment by the taxpayer, either thru collection under pressure or by tax sale.

Seek Increasingly the Equalizing Auspices of the State

After every attempt has been made to strengthen the economic ability of local school systems thru strengthening the administrative unit and thru improving tax systems, it still remains necessary to seek the funding auspices of that larger educational jurisdiction, the state. The state is the responsible agency for education. To the state

are available broader and more productive sources of taxation than are within the reach of any local community. The state is parent-like in its financial auspices with relation to schools.

Enough has been written upon the subject of state aid to bring about many times over—if writing would do it—the significant improvement in funding education that is so greatly needed. Highly scientific and practical surveys of the problem, culminating in definite proposals for legislation, have been developed in most of the states of the nation. Most of these proposals have had the general support of the superintendents of schools in small school systems. Where projected state aid programs have fallen by the wayside, the cause has fully as often been professional dissension and apathy as lay opposition. At times, also, there have been obstacles in the way such as constitutional tax barriers, public apathy to need, and the inability to find, or get together on, the means for increased state funds. These are the common hindrances. A specific attack upon each one of them by a united and honest professional presentation will, if continued, yield successful results.⁸

If a state aid program has been developed for a given state at some time past, let the superintendents of schools get behind it unanimously for adoption, or in an organized way work it over, revise it, and modernize it. If no program exists, steps should be taken to have a comprehensive program developed. Let this be the result of a merging of professional and lay interests. Let no one be afraid of minor phases of the program that do not fit his particular fancy. Avoid jealousy of the amount of state aid that a given program appears to yield to neighboring systems. So far as educational funding generally is strengthened, every school system will eventually feel the remedial effect.

Improved programs of state finance come slowly in many states. Some states have had before them well-developed programs for a decade before adoption. The New York program in a prosperous state was the result of at least a half dozen years of research and cooperative effort. Colorado took a decade or more to begin to make any real headway with its program. Vermont, an economically unfavored state, adopted its somewhat meager but basically sound program at its first legislative presentation. New Jersey has adopted

⁸ The most comprehensive study of state support upon a countrywide basis is: Mort, Paul R., and others, *op. cit.* This volume contains many references, in footnote and text, to special state studies and to researches on specialized phases of state support.

a pattern but awaits appropriation. Maine, after five years, is still at work. Connecticut has had a plan before it for ten years without adoption but without discard. The important thing is to develop and agree upon a program and to keep it continuously before the people, while at the same time building the best of cooperation and leadership out of professional and lay groups.

The nature of the projected program will depend in scope and in detail upon the conditions found within the individual states. Allowing for variations, the general focus seems increasingly to be upon an equalization pattern such as that outlined in 1933 by the National Conference on Educational Finance⁹ and based upon the fundamental principle enunciated by the Educational Finance Inquiry in 1923.¹⁰ In short, this principle calls upon the state to equalize educational opportunity and the burden of its support up to a reasonably satisfactory minimum. It is beyond the scope of this yearbook to describe in detail the generally accepted requirements of the equalization pattern.

What course federal aid will take or what expectancy the small school system may place in it is difficult to forecast. We have had in the past decade three major surveys of the federal aid problem.¹¹ In addition there have been several enlightening professional studies. In bringing any of these proposals to fruition the chief difficulty seems to have been encountered in the area of controls.

Control belongs to the states; it cannot be both state and federal. The great degree of local autonomy that education has been favored with has been the result of the delegation of authority by the state. It seems reasonable that local autonomy in large degree is more likely to be delegated by the state than by the federal government. This at least is history. Yet at the same time, students of educational finance, like Mort,¹² Norton,¹³ Chism,¹⁴ and others, as well

⁹ National Education Association and Department of Superintendence, Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. *Report of National Conference on the Financing of Education*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1933, Chapter 3, "State Responsibility and the Financing of Education," p. 21-27.

¹⁰ Strayer, George D., and Haig, Robert Murray. *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*. Report of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission, Vol. I. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923, 205 p.

¹¹ National Advisory Committee on Education. *Federal Relations to Education*. Washington, D. C.: the Committee (744 Jackson Place), 1931, 2 parts. ¶ Mort, Paul R. *Federal Support for Public Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936, 334 p. ¶ Advisory Committee on Education. *Report of the Committee*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938, 243 p.

¹² Mort, Paul R., and others, *op. cit.*

¹³ Norton, John K., and Norton, Margaret A. *Wealth, Children and Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937, 100 p.

¹⁴ Chism, Leslie L. *The Economic Ability of the States to Finance Public Schools*. Contributions to Education, No. 669. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936, 169 p.

as the National Advisory Committee on Education,¹⁵ have ably demonstrated that local support, coupled with state aid alone, is unable to cope effectively with the problem of adequate financing for education.

Concurrently the old adage that "control follows the dollar" seems to hold sway; "he who pays the piper calls the tune" illustrates the concept that still rules—rightly or wrongly.

Before the matter can be settled this question of control has to be resolved. Such evidence as exists, on the basis of casual observation, seems to indicate that an amount of federal aid to a degree effective for equalization could be distributed to the states with no vestige of control, and safely so.

These are considerations which lead to the conclusion that reliance for finance from beyond the local units should be upon state aid, buttressed by the collective and distributive auspices of the federal government, devoid of controls. Withal, the crucial determinant of future federal aid lies in the practice of states with respect to state aid. What the states do not have faith in, the federal government can hardly be expected to embrace. It follows, therefore, that the immediate hope and opportunity of the superintendent of schools in the small school system lie in strengthening his own state aid system.

The foregoing pages have discussed three major areas of promise in the improvement of the funding of the educational program. These are not presented as potential creators of economic ability; they are mere possibilities of a more effective harnessing of latent economic ability. Only if more effectively utilized can the economic ability possessed by the country become in turn effective in testing the thesis that education is in itself a producer of economic ability.¹⁶

The superintendent of schools in the small school system needs to follow these leads, to follow the contributions of research in these areas, to study his community and the facts pertaining to his community, and in short to become well versed and a leader in movements seeking to embrace all the possibilities for bringing about a more effective funding of the educational process.

Thus far in this discussion, it may be observed that in these suggestions three dominating ideals are emerging. While seeking to

¹⁵ National Advisory Committee on Education, *op. cit.*

¹⁶ In addition to works previously cited in connection with state and federal aid which bear upon this problem rather definitely, see also: Morrison, Henry C. *School Revenue*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930. Particularly pp. 1-70 for careful reading.

strengthen the funding of the educational process, it is of vast importance *first* to preserve the local right to fund the educational program, that is, to tax locally for the support of schools; *second*, thru all possible means to render more nearly equal as between local school systems the ability to finance the educational program; and *third*, thru all possible means to bring about a more adequate funding of the educational program.

Basic Principles in the Financing of Education

In the long and complicated process of really coming to grips with the funding problem the superintendent of schools in the small school system needs many aids. He needs to see the problem in perspective and in its revealed simplicity. He needs a financial program. He needs to be able to keep clear from the innumerable side roads which lead nowhere, from false starts and subversive movements, many of which will seem inviting but in reality will prove mirage-like in their deceptions. In fact, the superintendent needs principles to go by. He needs principles against which he may measure propositions, scales which will help him to test proposals and to sort and reject the wrong and to select the right. But most of all, he needs principles which may be made the basis positively, not negatively, for the development of a program of finance to be fought for and built upon for a decade or a quarter-century.

Yet principles cannot be concocted. A principle is in the nature of a natural or scientific law. Principles are revealed by the process of experience. They are a part of social evolution. This is just the difficulty. We have nothing in the social realm fully comparable to our great scientific laws in the realm of natural science—much less in this social science of education.

The broader field of "public finance" has developed to a generally recognized extent certain theories and principles. This is particularly true in taxation. For example, Lutz refers to the "requisites" of a sound system of taxation, such as adequacy, flexibility, and equity. Educational finance has been slow to recognize that successful practice increasingly proceeds according to certain patterns and that increasingly, whether recognized or not, these patterns conform to what we may even now begin to refer to as principles. As patterns in certain areas become more definite, it is apparent more and more that at least quasi-principles exist or that principles may be deduced.

Finally this whole area of principles takes shape and becomes available for a planning process.¹⁷

The Principle of State Responsibility

(1) This criterion is the most principle-like in that it is constitutionally recognized. The state is always responsible for the provision of education. This statement is supported by constitution, statute, and court decisions.

(2) Responsibility cannot be delegated. The responsibility of the state is "plenary."

(3) A system for financing the educational process, from the standpoint of this criterion, is not to be measured alone by the extent or percent of the financial support for education derived directly from the state as a governmental unit, but rather by the strength of the whole funding system whatever the sources. In other words, has the responsibility been discharged?

(4) Nevertheless, the principle of responsibility seems technically to necessitate large direct funding from the state treasury. Without this it appears that responsibility is undischageable.

(5) If state treasuries are inadequate or, within local state resources, cannot be rendered adequate, what then? It is at this point and in this light that it is best to look upon federal assistance for funding; that is, the states combine their resources to meet educational necessities as they are.

(6) The discharge of responsibility is to be tested by the application of other principles.

(7) Responsibility requires the state's recognition that the school is society's agency for its own preservation and improvement.

The Principle of Adequacy

(1) This criterion is less principle-like but nevertheless worth considering as such.

(2) An element of the educational program to which is not attached reasonably adequate financial support probably might the better be held out of the program. This statement does not argue for "earmarked" funds. It simply means that educational programs attempted without reasonably adequate resources are likely doomed

¹⁷ New York State Teachers Association, *New York State Education*, Souvenir edition, Albany: the Association, June 1948, p. 39-41. See also: Cyr. Frank W., Burke, Arnold J., and Mart. Paul P. *Paying for Our Public Schools*, Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1938, 197 p.

to failure and might better be held in abeyance, pending the procurement of necessary support. This procedure also does not endanger the program generally.

(3) Pertinent and timely questions: Is present funding adequate to enable the school to be a dynamic force in societal improvement? What expenditure is "worth its hire"?²⁸ What is at the bottom of questions such as: Is society getting its money's worth from the public schools?

(4) Common measures of adequacy are well known. Research is challenged by the need for new and more revealing and sensitive measures of the adequacy of support: that is, essentially, for new measures of the cost of successful programs and of cost related to results.

(5) The local tax base alone apparently cannot meet most generally the requirements of adequacy. Adequacy thus means state aid, if not, indeed, federal funding.

The Principle of Equalization or Equity

(1) Inequality of educational opportunity must be regarded as the opposite of equity. Inequality of ability to fund the process must produce inequity.

(2) The principle of equalization or equity is not concerned with equal rewards or outcomes, but with equal chances or opportunity. Since this is admittedly an inexact area, the concern is not with exact equality, but rather with "reasonable" equivalence.

(3) Kinds of inequality: burden-task, ability (wealth and effort), sacrifice, and aid (help).

(4) The state's funding auspices or those of a larger area than the local jurisdiction are essential for securing equity, the "equality of educational opportunity," and the burden of its support.

(5) State aid systems squaring with the principle are most practically held to require the recognition of a foundation program expressed in terms of cost. The size of the foundation program is important for equity. This is the opportunity-giving factor.

(6) Due regard for other principles reveals dangers in state aid systems involving no local contribution to the recognized foundation program.

²⁸ Several studies bear upon this question, notably the Maine and New Jersey state aid studies. See also: Illinois Education Association, *Our Children's Opportunities—in Relation to School Costs*. Springfield: the Association, 1938.

The Principle of Efficiency or Adaptability

(1) Probably "adaptability" is the better word because of the latent confusion in the use of the term "efficiency." This principle, which was first stated by Mort, goes into a deeper aspect of finance than that of getting a dollar's worth of education from each dollar expended.

(2) A school system squaring with the principle of efficiency is one that adjusts or realigns itself in the face of new and changed conditions. This principle "demands that the state shall make adequate provisions for local initiative . . . that localities shall have tax leeway for the support of schools over and beyond the minimum (foundation) program, and that the taxes . . . shall not be overburdened. . . ." ¹⁹

(3) Efficiency in financing demands a system that preserves and strengthens the adjusting function of the school. A poor local unit lacks adjustment power; it cannot realign; it has no fiscal power. The adjustment or adaptability factor essential to "efficiency" is a liquid or underburdened local tax.

(4) The state's responsibility in reality requires that the state safeguard adaptability.

(5) States formerly relied on effort or dollar-matching grants for the realignment or adjustment function. This practice broke down. The practice came into conflict with the equalization principle. It assumed too much that the intelligence or willingness to readjust were to be found exclusively in those areas where the economic resources necessary to take advantage of the effort type of aid were also located.

(6) This principle requires the economic freeing of local initiative. There must be a margin of free taxing power to which tax limitation and central budgetary control are inimical. To be expressive local initiative requires, practically, a tax power.

(7) Essential to "efficiency" then is (a) a free and an underburdened local property tax, (b) state aid, and (c) avoidance of 100 percent state support.

The Prudential Principle

(1) This principle is that of stewardship—of honest and efficient handling of funds. To square fully with this principle the school

¹⁹ Mort, Paul R., and others, *op. cit.*, p. 1-2.

system must meet the demands of good financial planning or budgeting in all that this entails.

(2) The prudential principle, whether or not well named, demands good school business administration. It is derived from experience. It is the *raison d'être* for the processes involved in the management of school revenue and the management of school expenditures.

(3) The demands of this principle are closely associated with the problem of central controls. A fully functioning democracy would find central controls unnecessary for meeting the demands of the prudential principle. In such a situation leadership and service would suffice. *Practically*, some state controls are essential to the fulfilment of stewardship.

(4) "One of the great tasks of the next few years is the strengthening of our state school system in the light of the prudential principle without trespassing upon (local initiative) the just demands of the efficiency principle."²⁰

²⁰ Cыт, Frank W.; Burke, Arvid J.; and Mort, Paul R., *op. cit.*, p. 89.

CHAPTER XV

Planning thru Budgeting

IN *David Copperfield* we find Mr. Micawber preaching about one of the fundamental principles of budgeting: "If a man had twenty pounds a year for his income, and spent nineteen pounds nineteen shillings and sixpence, he would be happy, but . . . if he spent twenty pounds one he would be miserable." The philosophy behind a sound policy of budget building for a school system goes further than the mere wise expenditures recommended by Mr. Micawber. The budgetary process determines, first, why certain expenditures are needed, and from there builds up an educational program that intertwines itself inseparably with the financial resources of the school district.¹ It is as unsound to plan an educational program for a school system without taking into consideration the economic condition of the district as it is to accept a stated sum of money for the support of the schools and with this money a known quantity, to work backwards into an educational program.

De Young, in his *Budgeting in Public Schools*,² expresses the modern budget in graphic form by means of an equilateral triangle, no one side of which is more pronounced, or more important than another. The base of the triangle is the educational plan and the other two sides are the spending plan and the financing plan. These three parts of the budget are closely integrated and the whole in reality becomes a balanced, carefully planned, educational program.

The general nature of any educational program, in the last analysis, is determined by the educational philosophy held by the people, by the board of education, by the teachers, and by the superintendent of schools. Administrators should guard against this philosophy's being influenced by economic resources to such an extent that the program eventually is built to fit a financial strait-jacket. Educational objectives should be boldly and clearly stated in financial documents. As De Young has written, "Philosophic prin-

¹ The Commission acknowledges with thanks the assistance of the following superintendents in the preparation of this chapter: Ralph F. Bates, Chatham, N. J.; M. J. Emerson, Castlewood, S. Dak.; Almer D. Harpham, Cross Timbers, Mo.; J. J. Ver Beek, Byron Center, Mich.; and L. P. Young, Berlin, N. H.

² De Young, Chris A. *Budgeting in Public Schools*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1936, p. 7.

ciples and educational concepts ought to crystallize into specific, written educational objectives for the budget."³ The fundamental philosophy underlying an ideal budget is that it integrates the educational program, its financial support, and the management of its expenditures into one unified whole.

Need for Budget Plans

Budget planning and budget building in small school systems are as important as in larger systems, but all too often they have been interpreted to mean merely the expenditure of the revenues contributed by the supporting unit. Administrators, teachers, and schoolboards frequently speak of budget-making when they mean they have allocated the anticipated revenues among the various divisions of the school system. In the true sense of the word, this is not making a budget.

The size of a school system does not change the need for a budget plan. It may, and very likely does, influence the form and the procedure, but the need for a budget plan in a small school system is just as real as in a metropolitan center. All school systems need financial support whether they are small or large. That is self-evident. But why they need money and what they are going to use it for are entirely different matters. If a school is maintained merely to meet certain legal requirements, then of course a fixed sum of money will defray the necessary expenses and the reason why money is needed becomes simple.

If, however, the school is to meet the needs of the community, then the problem becomes more involved. Working cooperatively with the schoolboard, it is the duty of the superintendent to organize a curriculum and to determine the educational needs of those who come within the influence of the school. He must be familiar with the curriculum requirements of the state school code and be prepared to recommend other school activities needed in the local situation. He must advise as to the length of the school year, the professional standards and preparation of the teaching staff, and the health program. He must have the building problems clearly in mind and their possible solutions ready to present. None of these things can be adequately treated without a carefully planned budget. Similar problems appear in some form in one-teacher school systems almost as frequently as they do in larger systems.

³ De Young, Chris A., *op cit.*, p. 27.

Long-Term Planning

Budget building not only provides for the needs of an educational program from year to year, but it also takes into consideration long-term planning. An educational program, or curriculum, is not a definite plan in the sense that it can be begun and completed during a certain period of time. Quite the contrary; it is changing from time to time to meet new conditions and new needs. Budget building does the same thing and predictions of the future are continually contained among its recommendations.

A building program may serve to illustrate what is meant by long-term planning. In a certain school system a few years ago, to take a specific illustration from an actual condition, better housing conditions were desired. Two solutions presented themselves: (a) to build an entirely new building—this was received by the patrons with resistance and a threatened delay; and (b) to remodel the present structure—this offered less resistance and came directly within the control of the schoolboard without the need of a special election. Consequently, a five-year building-remodeling program was decided upon and each year, for the next five years, the annual budget contained provisions for the modernization plan.

The first year, the sum of \$2500 was expended for elevating the old structure, building a new foundation wall, and digging a cellar. The second year, \$2500 installed a modern heating system. The third year a similar sum provided running water and sanitary toilets. The fourth year added proper ventilation and correct natural lighting, and the fifth year finished the job with new floors, slate blackboards, and a paint job both inside and out. The result at the end of five years was that the community, thru long-term planning, had the equivalent of a new building without the confusion and delay involved in attempting to sponsor a building campaign in a community unsympathetic toward such a project.

A building program is by no means the only problem that lends itself to long-term planning. Educational offerings should be prepared for long in advance, and laboratory and shop equipment and instructional staff should be included in budget plans before the actual work is put into practice. One might even go a step further and argue that only a very small part of an educational program, or of a budget plan, begins and ends within a fiscal year. Consideration should be given to the effect of items appearing in the current budget

on the budget of ten years in the future. Salary schedules carry on from year to year and provisions for annual increments voted one year must be taken care of for a number of years. Replacements or additional equipment of major proportions should be distributed so that the load will be spread evenly over a number of years.

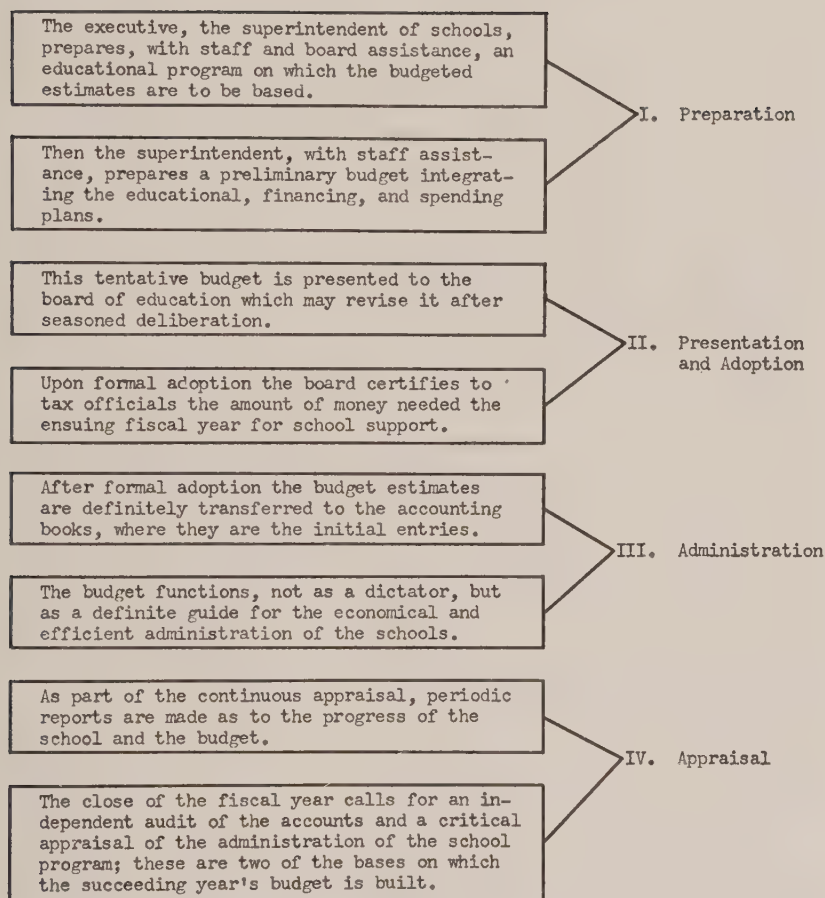
Responsibility for Budget Building

The responsibility for originating the budget rests upon the school superintendent. It is his duty as educational leader to determine, with the aid of his teachers and the board of education, the scope of the educational program and the educational needs of the community. After the superintendent has given these problems careful consideration, they should be presented to the board of education where they should receive further study and an attempt made to reconcile the educational needs with the economic ability to support these needs. The final decision as to what shall be supported and what money shall be requested should be the responsibility of the board of education, acting as the elected representative of the public (see Figure XXXIII).

Much of the value of a budget depends upon the manner in which it is planned. When worked out collectively, with all interested parties cooperating in the educational program, it becomes an instrument of power and a declaration of plans, principles, and needs. Worked out alone by a member of the schoolboard, or by a school administrator, it may become a subject of controversy or a mere list of minimum requirements.

Coordination of those who participate in budget planning is one of the major problems which many superintendents and administrators have to solve. In many ways, the intensity of the difficulties increases inversely with the size of the school system. In large urban centers, it is readily acknowledged that factors pertaining to budget-making are best understood by the faculty and the superintendent, and to them usually is left the preliminary work, at least, of preparing the budget.

In small school systems, the problem is not so clear-cut and because schoolboard members are closer to teaching situations and frequently have had contacts with the school system for many years, there is a tendency for them to usurp the budget-making functions. Perhaps the word "retain" is a better word in describing this atti-



Source: DeYoung, Chris A. Budgeting in Public Schools. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1936. p. 21.

FIGURE XXXIII.—THE PROGRESS OF THE SCHOOL BUDGET

tude, because historically the problem of planning for the financial support of the educational program rested originally in the hands of the elected representatives of the citizens. The trend in recent years, however, has been away from this original practice. It cannot be stressed too much, however, that the final approval of the budget is the responsibility of the schoolboard. It should not be delegated to the superintendent with a mere perfunctory stamp of approval by the board.

The psychological value of a successful budget plan, originated and prepared by the school administrator with his entire staff cooperating and approved by the board of education, is of inestimable value in establishing confidence and support on the part of the teaching force and of the taxpaying group. That such a situation does not always exist, but that it may be arrived at thru wise leadership, is evident from the following statements obtained thru inquiry blanks sent out by the Yearbook Commission. For example, from a population group of about 4000, a supervising principal reports:

In a small community where the growth of the school system has been gradual and a good proportion of the board members serve more than one three-year term, the feeling grows up that the members are familiar with the problems and making up the school budget is frequently informal, if not haphazard.

Following a university course in school administration, the need for a sound budget system was made evident to the writer and he determined to pass along the idea. A careful study was made of budget practices in cities where the budgets were known to be worked out in accordance with sound, approved methods. These methods were then applied to a system the size of our own. The district clerk was a part-time official whose other work was that of an accountant. He saw very readily the advantage of a sound budget system and realized that once it was in effect, making the budget would be both simplified and improved. So pooling his knowledge of business practice and my study of budget practices and forms, we tackled the problem. Based on a careful comparison of figures for a period of years, and predicting the growth for the coming year, we built up a tentative budget in good form and sent copies to every member of the board prior to the budget meeting. Most of the members of the board were business or professional men. When they came to the meeting, after having a couple of evenings to look over the new forms, they were willing to admit that the new setup gave them a definite, clear-cut picture of the entire program and they agreed to use the tentative form and its method in building up the budget for the coming school year.

The experience gained in working over the system the first year convinced the members of its value and the use of the budget during the year completed the job so when budget time rolled around the following year the supervising principal was instructed to get together all necessary data for the committees to

study and was particularly cautioned to use this new system because it gave them "a chance to see the whole picture and study each part separately or all of it at once."

From a population group of less than 500, reporting on the insistence of board members to retain the preparation of the budget in their own hands, a superintendent writes:

Reluctance on the part of board members in giving to the superintendent the authority for preparing the budget comes from a lack of confidence in the superintendent's ability and interest in maintaining their school on an economically sound basis. In order to obtain the board's confidence in his ability to manage affairs of the school, the superintendent has made a rule to place in the members' hands at practically every board meeting some or all of the following reports:

(1) Expenditures to date for the present school year (subdivided into their various allocations).

(2) Expenditures for current month (subdivided as above).

(3) Anticipated expenditures for the next month. (Reasons for each expenditure are given either orally or written.)

(4) Pupil charts or graphs on some phase of school work. (The board members of small schools really appreciate being informed about what is going on in the classroom. This procedure also helps to justify the expenditures for certain supplies requested in the budget.)

(5) Financial report on all activity accounts.

(6) A short report of some outstanding piece of work done by two or three of the teachers. (This serves as a "build up" for desired raises for the next year.)

(7) A brief statement relative to some desired change wanted for the following year.

At the end of the year the superintendent prepares a financial statement covering the past school year. This carries with it brief statements explaining certain new or unusual expenditures. The board members appreciate this, for it gives them information which they feel they ought to know to be able to give to inquiring patrons correct and intelligent information.

Sometime later the members are given copies of the suggested budget for the coming year. Explanatory notes also accompany these budgetary items.

This procedure gives each member sufficient opportunity to examine each item, to discuss the budget with others, and to make any suggestions or ask any questions before the budget is officially brought up at a meeting. In other words, the superintendent has prepared the budget carefully, because he knows it must stand the test.

A superintendent of schools in a population group of less than 1500 states the opinion that:

The members of the schoolboard feel, or should feel, a great responsibility for the spending of the district's school money and the keeping of a financial

record of the same. The members are unwilling to place the responsibility on the superintendent until he convinces them that he is capable and reliable.

When the personnel of the board realizes that the superintendent understands the financial conditions and knows how to keep the financial records, they are, in most instances, glad to place the responsibility on him.

Another superintendent in a community of less than 1500 writes:

It should be said at the outset, that there is probably no phase of school administration about which the public is more concerned than the financial dealings of the district. Small communities have a tendency to be conservative, and since generally the board of education in the smaller schools is quite close to the public, there is apt to be a feeling among the board that special care must be exercised in budget preparation and administration. Further, there may be a feeling that the superintendent, being in a sense an outsider, may not know local conditions and limitations as do the members themselves.

Means of overcoming the insistence of boards to retain the preparation of the budget in their own hands must necessarily vary with localities and communities. Essentially it consists of a process of education, of the superintendent first, and the board members next. It cannot be assumed that the superintendent is qualified to prepare a budget, unless he has properly equipped himself on budgetary practice and procedure. This must include a study of past and present budgets in terms of local needs and resources. Small budgets require special planning in order that an effective educational program may be administered in terms of the budget.

Board members need to gain confidence in the ability of the superintendent to share in the preparation of the budget and need to be shown the desirability of having him assume more responsibility in it. Educational conferences and meetings at which they can be informed on school matters are very helpful in calling these facts to their attention, without having board members feel that the superintendent is anxious for more authority. State department and university bulletins are also helpful in this connection. Such suggestions may be followed up with frank and open discussions on the subject.

As a result of the foregoing wedge, a superintendent will very likely receive opportunity to act in an advisory capacity in budget preparation. By helpful suggestions to those in charge, he may advance from this point to the desired administrative relationship. A well-prepared budget, officially adopted by the board of education after being analyzed and discussed, and well-administered by the executive, will generally retain for him the guiding hand in the vital stages of its preparation.

From the foregoing statements and from other similar experiences it is apparent that much of the value of budget planning lies in its origin and that in school systems where there is an insistence on the part of the board of education to retain the preparation of the budget in its own hands, the situation is explained partly by tradi-

tion and partly by a lack of confidence in the business ability of the superintendent. A persistent, intelligent effort to win the confidence of the board will usually result in placing the responsibility for originating the budget on the superintendent where it rightfully belongs, but the superintendent should not ask for, and should not be given, the final authority for deciding all budgetary problems.

Characteristics of a Model Budget

The question might well be asked, "What are some of the characteristics of a good school budget?" A reply is suggested by De Young in his list of functions of the budget which may be summarized as follows:

(1) The chief characteristic of a good budget is that it is a device for assisting in the educating of the child and is not merely a form for financial accounting.

(2) It gives an overview. The budget gives the board of education and the community a means of seeing the educational system as a whole.

(3) It aids in analysis. The budget serves as a device for studying the details of a school system.

(4) It develops cooperation within the school. A carefully prepared school budget requires the assistance of the entire teaching and business personnel of the system.

(5) It stimulates confidence among the taxpayers. When the public knows all the facts concerning the needs and plans for a school system, suspicions and misunderstandings disappear and better support frequently results.

(6) It estimates receipts. The responsibility for suggesting possible sources of income tends to temper the request of school administrators and makes them mindful of the taxpayer.

(7) It determines the amount of financial resources needed. Originally this was the primary purpose of a budget and is still one of the main reasons why proposed expenditures should be itemized.

(8) It authorizes expenditures. Budget figures are employed in accounting to check anticipations against actual occurrences.

(9) It aids in administering the school economically. The financial forecast of the budget aids the school district in securing full value for each dollar expended.

(10) It improves accounting procedures. A good budget cannot function properly without a correspondingly good system of accounting.

(11) It aids in extracurriculum activities. A good school budget emphasizes the necessity of school control over the receipts and expenditures of such organizations as athletic associations and dramatic clubs.

(12) It projects the school into the future. By planning ahead for a period of twelve months or longer, the budget calls for careful forecasting.⁴

⁴ Adapted from the statement by De Young in *Budgeting in Public Schools*, p. 9-14.

Yet even the best budget has its limitations. Among the possible limitations are the following suggested by Engelhardt and Engelhardt:

- (1) The budget is not a watchdog of the treasury.
- (2) The budget cannot be substituted for good administration.
- (3) The budget will be as good as the executive makes it.
- (4) The budget improves only as administration improves.
- (5) The budget should not be discarded because of failure to use it advantageously.
- (6) Responsibility should not be placed in the budget.
- (7) The budget should not be followed blindly.
- (8) Judgment should be used. Remember the budget is based on estimate.
- (9) The budget should not be allowed to run the school and to kill initiative.
- (10) Remember the budget is to good administration what bookkeeping is to good accounting.⁵

Budgetary Procedure for a Small School System

There is such a wide variety of conditions prevailing in the different sections of the country that it is useless to attempt to suggest a standard form of budget that will be equally applicable to all.⁶ However, in spite of some regional limitations, it may be pertinent to consider a satisfactory budgetary procedure for a small school system that could be employed under practically all conditions. This procedure should be divided into four steps: (a) the collection of information; (b) the preparation of the budget; (c) the adoption of the budget; and (d) the administration of the budget. The fourth step, the administration of the budget, will be given consideration in the next chapter, "Management of Expenditures."

Collection of Information

Early in the financial year the budget builder should prepare a budget calendar, or a schedule of dates, indicating definitely when certain stages of the budget are to be reached.⁷ Probably a much simpler schedule would suffice in smaller systems, but once a calendar is fixed, it should be adhered to.

Several months before the budget is to be presented for consideration, the budget-maker should place in the hands of each depart-

⁵ Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 553.

⁶ In most states the superintendent of schools can obtain suggestions on budgeting from the state department of education. For example: Iowa State Department of Education. *Organizing the School Budget*. Accounting Circular No. 10. Des Moines: the Department, July 1938. 15 p. (Mimeo.)

⁷ De Young reproduces a budgetary calendar in his *Budgeting in Public Schools*, p. 58.

ment head, teacher, or janitor, or any other person connected with the system who has in any way the distribution of supplies or the responsibility for services, a requisition blank on which can be made a careful estimate of needs for the ensuing fiscal year. Articles and services requested should be described in detail with the probable cost included, and accompanying this requisition blank should be an inventory of supplies on hand and a report of materials used during the present year.

The budget-making officer should then classify this material and with this information in hand, he is ready to proceed to the preparation of his budget.

Preparation of the Form of the Budget Document

A model budget should have three main divisions: (a) a discussion of the general educational policy; (b) an estimation of needed expenditures; and (c) sources of income.

Policy—A good budget will discuss the general educational program of the school system. The exact form which this discussion will take, or its position within the budget, varies with different budget builders. In larger systems a discussion of the needs, policies, and philosophy underlying different items is frequently inserted in the budget as those items are analyzed, but a more common practice, and the one recommended here for smaller systems, is for a general discussion of educational plans to precede the financial tabulations as a sort of foreword or preliminary section. (Consult the budget for Centerville reproduced as a part of this chapter, p. 367-76.)

This beginning section of the budget should probably start with a review of the general educational policy of the system. The length of school year should be decided upon. Is the high-school program broad enough to meet the needs of all the students? Should the system continue to operate under its present form of organization or should it shift over to an 8-4, or to a 6-6 form? What about further consolidation, or special supervisors? These and many other questions of policies and program should be settled before the budget-maker is ready to take up the next step, a discussion of the curriculum.

The kind of curriculum to be offered by the school system will determine to some extent what goes into the budget: "If the traditional curriculum is to be offered, the budget procedure will likely

be simpler. If it is to provide for vocational agriculture, home-making, commercial courses, shop activities, music, physical education, and the like, additional detailed planning must take place in order that the curriculum may be carried out effectively.”⁸

The type of teacher to be employed may be the next thing the budget-maker should discuss. If well-trained teachers are to be secured, then provision must be included in the budget to provide salaries in keeping with services rendered. These and other problems including the question of providing supplies, building repairs and expansions, bonded indebtedness, and the like are all influenced by financial support and should be discussed freely in order that the board of education and the public may have full knowledge upon which to base approval or disapproval.

Expenditures—The second section of the budget should consist of a carefully prepared estimate of needs likely to occur during the period of time covered by the appropriation.⁹ There is no royal formula by which a school administrator may determine the correct amount of funds necessary for carrying on a specific activity, or even determine the gross amount needed to operate his system. Fortunately, in a small school system the administrator is so close to his schools that he obtains a firsthand knowledge of needs and expenditures not possible in large urban systems. The superintendent of schools in a system of 10,000 population or less should have his hand on the pulse of every item of expenditure and the financial efficiency of his system depends largely upon whether or not he possesses business ability.

Estimating items of expenditure should include a careful study of expenditures made during the preceding year and also several previous years in order to determine definite trends. Estimates should then be considered in relation to other main budget headings in order that no one activity absorbs more than its fair share of the appropriation.

Certain items of instruction may be estimated on the basis of costs per child in average membership. Books and supplies especially may be figured this way. Operating needs, on the other hand,

⁸ Jagers, Richard E. *Budgetary Procedures in County School Systems in Kentucky*. Doctor's thesis. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University, 1930. p. 8. ¶ Also by the same author: *Administering the County School System*. New York: American Book Co., 1934. p. 57-75.

⁹ For detailed suggestions for estimating expenditures consult: De Young, Chris A., *op. cit.*, p. 53-119. ¶ Moehlman, A. B. *Public School Finance*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1927. p. 231-79.

require much detailed analysis. Types of buildings, numbers enrolled, types of heating plants, and community use of buildings are only a few of the factors which enter into cost of operation. Records of individual schools kept over a period of years will help to locate wastefulness, as well as furnish a basis for establishing costs.

Maintenance of plants, auxiliary agencies such as libraries and transportation, fixed charges, capital outlays, and debt services are other main budget items that will require detailed data of past expenditures combined with an analysis of new needs before reliable estimates can be reached.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to go into the problems associated with a businesslike system of cost accounting (see Chapter XVI). Suffice is to state that some system of cost accounting is essential and until such a system is adopted, a wide margin of possible error will exist in all budget estimates.

Income—The third division of a budget covers a study of possible income (see Chapter XVII). Some budget-makers, indeed, place this division before a study of expenditures, but if a school program is to develop unhampered by financial pressure, it is better technic for the budget-maker to study first the needs of his system from the point of view of providing a sound, enriched, educational program for his community. Later, when the amount of financial support available is learned, and it is necessary to do so, he is in a position to decide which services can best be delayed, or curtailed, pending future revenues and incomes.

Sources of revenue for the support of education vary so greatly in different regions that here again no fixed forms for tabulating these incomes can be recommended for a sample budget. Money comes into the treasury from state and local sources and, in a few instances, indirectly from the federal government. School revenues in many states are based on per capita allowance. Local revenues come largely from a tax on real estate, the maximum of which may or may not be fixed by a tax limitation determined by state or county laws, and from tuition charges and similar services.

Adoption of the Budget

The preliminary budget, completed as far as the superintendent of schools is concerned, is now ready for the study, alterations, and

additions of the board of education, working in conjunction with the superintendent. When these changes have been fixed upon, the budget should then be presented for public approval, for in the last analysis it is the community and the taxpayer that must be satisfied before adequate financial support is forthcoming.

The question of public approval of a budget is largely a matter of publicity and education. If the public is properly informed and if the various items in the budget are explained in sufficient detail so as to destroy the suspicions of those who are opposed to a reasonable educational program, the budget will usually be supported by the community to the utmost of its ability to finance a program of education (see Chapter XII).

If, on the other hand, the superintendent and the board of education assume a position of aloofness and refuse to take the public into their confidence, sooner or later suspicions will arise and with them will come possibilities of opposition and drastic reductions. Efforts should be made to avoid conditions where the public gets the impression that the school department is trying to conceal information which rightfully belongs to the taxpayers.

No superintendent of schools should ever be afraid of having the public know what he is doing, or what he has done, but he should be concerned with what the public "thinks" he is doing or has done. It is his task to see that this thinking is straight and is based on facts as they are, and not on facts as someone has guessed them to be.

The exact method by which the budget is to reach the public will vary with each community. In some states a public hearing is required by law;³⁰ under other conditions, the local press will prove an able aid. In others, parent-teacher association meetings and discussion groups will offer an opportunity for the schoolboard to acquaint the public with its plans and needs for the ensuing year. In still other places, bulletins and printed reports sent to the voters may seem desirable, altho it is questionable if this latter device is frequently necessary in very small school systems, but regardless of the form of approach, the one fundamental principle underlying the whole problem is the same—namely, the confidence and the support of the public is only secured when the school system is open and honest with the public.

³⁰ For a discussion of this point see De Young's *Budgeting in Public Schools*, p. 284-88.

C E N T E R V I L L E

(Specimen budget from school system of 200 pupils)

Annual Report of the
Superintendent of Schools

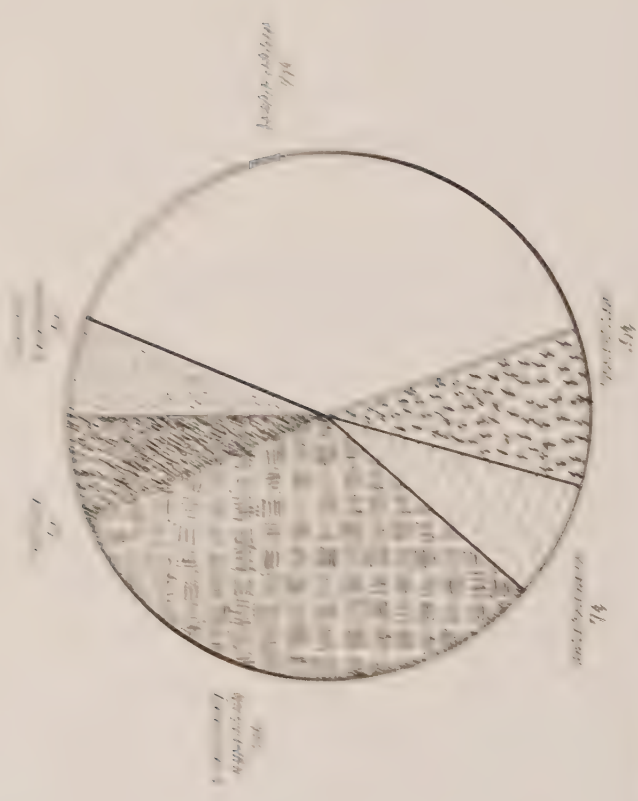
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Budget Request
of the
Board of Education

- - -

January 1, 1939

100
 90
 80
 70
 60
 50
 40
 30
 20
 10
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1998 expenditures

TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF CENTERVILLE,

Greetings!

Herewith is submitted my annual school report for the year 1938 and budget request for the year 1939.

North School

During the year 1938 the new North School was completed. Additional work finished since my last report, to which reference was made at that time, includes fireproofing certain parts of the basement near the heating plant, the installation of a unit type of ventilating system, grading the grounds, installing window shades, and sanding and finishing the classroom floor.

The school now is an excellent little building and is modern in every respect. I do not know of a one-room building in the county that is its superior. The entire cost of the plant as it now stands was \$4,318.60. The classroom provides seating capacity for 40 pupils. The present enrolment is 16.

Enrolment

Enrolment in our schools has increased greatly over what it was a year ago. For the school year ending in June 1938, the average membership was 170 pupils. Today (January 1, 1939) it is 205, an increase of 18 percent.

The added number of pupils came at a time when we were least prepared to take care of them, both because of lack of equipment and because of housing conditions. The loss of the West School last year, by fire, not only created a shortage of classroom space, but also caused a shortage of books and equipment. With plans for a new building still under consideration, it was not thought feasible to purchase new desks to take care of the increased enrolment. Consequently, after much planning and repairing, we were able to patch up desks and

seats to tide us over the year without having to purchase more than a few units. The contract for the new building will include new equipment.

The increased number of children did, however, require the purchasing of a considerable number of textbooks. More are still needed.

Repairs

During the year, fire escapes have been installed at the East and the Center Schools. The boiler room at the Center has been altered to meet the instructions of the state building inspector. Our buildings are now in a splendid state of repairs and no major expenditures should be needed for several years.

High-School Enrolment

There was an average of 45 pupils attending high school in the City of N..... during the year. Tuition costs are \$125 per pupil and are charged against this school district. At the present time a conservative estimate places the number who will enter high school in September at 55, an increase of 10.

The West School

Plans are rapidly taking shape for the erection of a new school on the west side to replace the building recently destroyed by fire. The building committee reports that the new structure, a modern three-classroom building, housing the public library and having accommodations for special classes will be ready for occupancy by September 1.

Educational Program for 1939

Due to a number of factors beyond our control, there has developed a sizable group of children in our schools who are three or more years retarded. According to approved studies, these children can best be served by being grouped in special classes where a specially trained teacher will have an opportunity to study

individual differences and may alter her daily program so as to meet and develop the special aptitudes of each child. If Centerville is to continue its policy of serving all the children of all its citizens, the time has come when special classes should be established.

There are at the present time sixteen pupils who should have the advantages of this specialized type of instruction. This number will probably remain fairly constant until such times as economic conditions develop a back-to-the-city movement among a new group of low income families who have recently migrated to this district. The need for these classes should then disappear.

A careful study of the problem indicates that the sum of \$1,000 will provide suitable equipment for our present needs and will cover salary obligations for one teacher for the balance of the year between September and January 1. It should be noted, however, that the establishing of a special class will entail an estimated annual expenditure of \$1,600 after the first year.

Curriculum changes - There has been a growing impression during the last few years that our pupils are leaving the elementary grades without satisfactory preparation in English and in history as it pertains to current social problems. In order to correct this weakness I am recommending (with the approval of a committee of teachers appointed to study the problem) that the teaching of geography be completed in the seventh grade and that the time now allotted to this subject in Grade VIII be allotted for additional work in English and in history of the type indicated above. This change in the curriculum will not involve new financial obligations.

Textbooks - An urgent need exists in our schools for more modern textbooks in science. A committee of teachers is now engaged in studying the situation with the prospects that definite recommendations will be made in the late spring.

The recent increased enrolment will require additional purchases of textbooks as soon as funds are available for that purpose. A considerable replacement is still necessary to cover the losses and damages done by the West School fire. The item of \$500 for textbooks requested in the budget will be divided as follows:

New science books.....	\$ 65.00
Because of increased enrolment.....	75.00
To replace books lost or destroyed by fire.....	260.00
To replace routine wear and age.....	<u>100.00</u>
Total	\$500.00

Looking Ahead Financially

One new item which appears in the budget request for the first time this year merits special attention. I refer to the item for special classes for retarded children. Attention should be focused on the fact that the initiation of this type of work will involve an annual expenditure, and that the \$1,000 requested in the present budget covers only a part of a year. It is estimated that a full year will require annually an appropriation of about \$1,600.

Another fixed charge that has not appeared in previous budgets, but for which the school district has already obligated itself, is the retiring of the bond issue on the new West School. Beginning in 1940 and continuing for the next twenty years, the annual cost of interest and principal for this service will be \$1,200.

These two items will represent a new expenditure of \$2,800 annually.

Much of this increase, however, will be offset by reduced expenditures in another direction. Because of a building repair and remodeling program that has been carried on during the past three years at an annual average cost of \$3,400, our buildings and equipment are now in excellent condition. Consequently, it is estimated that repairs and replacement costs, beginning in 1940, need not exceed \$1,000 per year for the next four or five years. This represents an average reduction of \$2,400 per year for these items which will in a very large measure

offset the cost of new expenditures estimated at \$2,800 a year. The net increase, therefore, beginning in 1940 is \$400 per year. This is equivalent to a 50 cent increase in the tax rate per \$1,000 of valuation. There is no increase this year in the total budget.

Budget Request

I herewith present for your further study and consideration my annual budget request.

The estimated financial needs for the year 1939 are placed at \$22,340.00, an increase of \$14.10 over the expenditures of the previous year.

Estimated receipts from sources other than local taxes will amount to about \$10,700 and should not vary greatly from the amount received during 1938. This will leave a balance of \$11,760.00 to be raised by local taxes.

The following tables present a comparison of proposed expenditures with actual expenditures for similar services during the last four years.

Expenditures 1935-1938 of the Centerville Public Schools

Compared with Budget Requests for 1939

Account	1935	Amount Expended 1936	1937	1938	Proposed Expenditures 1939	Increase (+) Decrease (-) over 1938
General expenses						
Superintendent.....	\$ 1,080.00	\$ 1,080.00	\$ 1,080.00	\$ 1,080.00	\$ 1,080.00	\$ 0.00
Schoolboard.....	75.00	75.00	75.00	80.00	80.00	0.00
Administration.....	82.50	48.41	63.59	71.73	70.00	-1.73
Expenses of instruction						
Teachers.....	7,695.00	7,830.00	7,950.00	7,956.00	7,956.00	0.00
Textbooks.....	236.17	180.16	120.07	412.42	500.00	+87.58
Supplies.....	379.69	345.47	424.84	539.55	560.00	+20.45
Special classes.....	1,000.00	+1,000.00
Expenses of operating school plant						
Janitor service	942.90	887.55	872.21	1,242.58	1,245.00	+2.42
Fuel.....	452.78	1,088.37	942.89	684.45	684.00	-0.45
Miscellaneous.....	243.38	266.36	641.22	236.36	240.00	+3.64
Maintenance						
Repairs.....	326.37	549.36	901.44	1,574.14	500.00	-1,074.14
Auxiliary agencies						
Transportation.....	460.80	688.80	652.40	684.00	700.00	+16.00
High-school tuition...	4,681.78	4,036.37	5,391.46	6,011.55	6,700.00	+688.45
Insurance.....	173.50	236.34	374.77	375.00	+0.23
Health.....	173.74	216.80	132.10	150.00	150.00	0.00
Outlay						
New buildings, equip- ment and grounds....	1,050.00	2,880.25	1,228.35	500.00	-728.35
Total.....	\$18,053.61	\$17,528.99	\$22,127.47	\$22,325.90	\$22,340.00	\$ +14.10

Receipts During 1938

Outside sources:

Dog fund.....	\$ 206.97
Aid to industrial schools.....	14.00
State school fund, Part 2.....	2,383.33
Refund on insurance.....	7.76
High-school transportation.....	948.70
For salary of superintendent.....	580.00
High-school tuition.....	3,850.14
Elementary tuition.....	5.00
State school fund, Part 1.....	<u>2,750.00</u>

\$10,745.90

Local taxes..... 11,589.10

Total receipts..... \$22,335.00

Total expenditures..... 22,334.90

Unexpended balance..... \$0.10

School Statistics

For the School Year of	<u>1935</u>	<u>1936</u>	<u>1937</u>	<u>1938</u>	January <u>1, 1939</u>
Boys enrolled.....	119	99	101	96	115
Girls enrolled.....	90	77	78	74	90
Total enrolled.....	209	176	179	170	205
Attending high school.....	40	36	40	45	50
Average daily attendance.....	179	164	161	163	...
Average daily membership.....	191	173	170	172	...
Number of days of school.....	177	178	179	169	...
Number of teachers.....	8	8	8	8	8

Respectfully submitted,

DONALD THOMAS
Superintendent of schools

January 1, 1939

BUDGET RECOMMENDATIONS

Board of Education
of Centerville
for the year
1939

To the Citizens of Centerville:

Your Board of Education recommends that the sum of \$22,340.00 be appropriated for the support of schools for the year 1939. This amount has been reached after a careful study and approval of the proposed budget as presented to us by the superintendent of schools, and which herewith accompanies this budget request.

Respectfully submitted,

John Brooks
Robert Peck
Lars Koksvik

Board of Education
of Centerville

CHAPTER XVI

Management of Expenditures

CHAPTER XV on budgetary procedure omitted a discussion of the administration of the budget. This omission was intentional, for the administration of the budget, or the management of expenditures, includes such a large part of the superintendent's responsibilities that the problem merits a complete chapter in itself.¹

In a general way, the work of the superintendent of schools may be divided into two broad fields, one academic or professional, the other fiscal or business management. The duties and the responsibilities of the superintendent toward the business management of the school system are frequently not clearly defined. Some of this confusion may be traced to traditional procedures, but more of it is due, without doubt, to a lack of business training and business judgment on the part of the superintendent of schools. Teachers and superintendents, in preparing themselves for a life of service in the field of education, have stressed professional courses that lean toward the study of principles of education, child psychology, classroom management, methods of instruction, curriculum building, and educational measurements.

In the classroom and on the academic side of the educational program the superintendent occupies the exalted position of an expert or specialist. The taxpayers have hired the superintendent of schools to be their adviser in the field of education, and bold indeed is the citizen who considers his knowledge of the teaching processes sufficient to warrant his criticism of the educational program. Consequently, the superintendent frequently enjoys immunity because the taxpayer is not qualified to estimate the value of what is being attempted.

The business management of a school system is distinctly a different matter. Here we are dealing in terms with which the layman is familiar. Especially is this true in those communities where successful businessmen accept positions on the schoolboard. They recognize at once sound business practices and soon evaluate the amount of business ability the school superintendent possesses.

¹ This chapter was prepared with the assistance of Arthur W. Schmidt, Associate in Educational Finance, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.

They are reluctant to turn financial responsibilities over to hands which they know or think are not qualified to assume these tasks efficiently. Happy is the school administrator who combines, in correct proportions, able professional leadership with keen business insight and fortunate indeed is the community that he serves.

Authorization of Expenditures

The school administrator, with the authorization of the board of education, should be responsible for expenditures within the school budget. Unfortunately, such an arrangement does not always exist, even tho there is a unanimity of opinion among superintendents of smaller school systems that the business management of the system ought to be a part of the administrator's duties.

Where divided opinion between members of the board and the superintendent exists, it is most commonly apparent in matters of purchasing school equipment and instructional materials. It is at this point that friction most easily develops. Perhaps the importance of the question as to who shall do the purchasing of supplies in a small school system is greatly exaggerated since the total amount spent on these items, in relation to the entire budget, is relatively small. It is important, however, that the most needed and most suitable materials be purchased. Consequently, the superintendent who is not free to consummate purchases will do well to direct his efforts to the development of standards for the right kind of articles rather than the method of acquiring them. Besides assuring more satisfactory purchases this approach to a delicate problem of board-superintendent relationship may result in the eventual tho imperceptible disappearance of the problem.

Finding Suitable Financial Record Forms

The organization of a filing system consisting of the proper fiscal record forms is a common problem in many small school systems. Especially is this true in very small communities. In larger systems clerical and commercially trained assistants are commonly provided so there is a wider leeway in the choice of a system of bookkeeping and cost accounting. In a small community where the supervising principal or the superintendent of schools must act as fiscal agent with too little, and often no, clerical assistance, record forms should

be simple, few in number, systematically organized, and yet comprehensive in scope.

Probably much of the difficulty with forms and records and the development of accounting systems lies in the fact that too often the administrator does not know how to use them as tools in obtaining the information he wants or needs. Sometime ago a group of superintendents were asked to list the kind of information they needed but could not readily get from their accounting records. The response was almost negligible yet this group was assisting in revising an accounting system! Much of the information needed is purely local in character but certainly every administrator should want an accounting system from which he could, at a moment's notice, get the exact amount available for each budget item, taking into consideration the amounts obligated in the form of purchase orders or contracts issued, as well as the amounts actually spent. If he is to administer a budget efficiently he should be reviewing constantly performances of the plan previously drawn up and adopted. The right kind of forms and records will help him do that.

Forms for financial records and accounts vary greatly with the individual who uses them. Consequently, in states where uniform records are not prescribed by the state, each school administrator should find or design forms best fitted to the needs of his own system. There is on the market a variety of public school accounting systems and also commercial accounting forms which can be adapted readily to school use.² Or, the school administrator with a little ingenuity can design and duplicate his own forms.

In addition to the selection of suitable forms and records the superintendent should not overlook the importance of a safe place for storing and filing records. Every superintendent in systems not already provided with a suitable vault or fire resisting file should remain constantly on the alert for new arrangements that will adequately preserve and protect valuable records.

In analyzing accounting records, it will simplify matters to first consider bookkeeping records as distinct from other forms such as purchase orders, requisitions, and receipt forms which may be referred to as accounting documents.

² Information on school record forms may be obtained from such sources as: C. F. Williams and Son, Albany, N. Y.; Roberts and Meek, Harrisburg, Pa.; Webster Publishing Co., St. Louis, Mo.; Farquhar and Albright Co., Chicago, Ill.; Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.; and Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Bookkeeping Forms

There are basically two types of bookkeeping forms; one type utilizes the columnar distribution of receipts and expenditures. This type is well illustrated in the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, "School Records and Reports."³ In systems of this type the accounting forms are ruled with numerous columns and each column is given an account title. This type of form is most commonly used by the standard published systems and uniform state required or suggested accounting systems. The advantage of such a system presumably is the simplicity of operation and use. Its disadvantage is in the fact that it lacks flexibility, makes it difficult to get the kind of information that is most needed, and does not give as complete an "accounting control" of expenditures as is desirable.

Since the first of the two types of accounting records is adequately described in the *Research Bulletin* there is no need for further description here, but an accounting system which has been adopted recently by several New York school districts (300 to 2500 pupils) is described here to illustrate the second type of bookkeeping records.

The forms used are standard commercial forms which can be purchased in stationery stores in any fair-sized city. The headings as shown in the illustrations were printed by local job printers at a nominal cost.

The system involves two officers—one is the treasurer who keeps a simple cash book for recording receipts and payments chronologically; the other is the clerk who is the chief accounting officer or bookkeeper. Since the treasurer's records are simple they need not be described or illustrated here.

The clerk on the other hand must keep very detailed accounts since his records are the ones which the administrator must rely upon for information and guidance. They consist of the following records.

Register of receipts—Figure XXXIV is a form used for recording chronologically all cash as it is received. In New York and several other states the sources and number of receipts are so few that there is no need for more detailed accounts. If conditions are such that some sort of analysis of receipts is desirable the administrator need

³ National Education Association, Research Division. "School Records and Reports." *Research Bulletin* 5; 225-352; November 1927.

only list the classes of receipts he wishes and separate sheets can be made up—one for each class of receipt.

Voucher register—This form is used for listing chronologically all payments (see Figure XXXV). It is the first record of a disbursement and gives the total of disbursements against which the total in the expenditure ledger (sometimes called distribution ledger) can be checked thereby insuring mathematical accuracy.

Expenditure ledger—Figure XXXVI is a form which corresponds in purpose to the “distribution ledger” described in the *Research Bulletin*. It differs in its use, however, for instead of a columnar distribution a separate page is used for each account classification, for example, there will be one sheet for “General Control—school elections,” another for “General Control—school census,” and so on.

The first entry made on this form is the amount allotted to the particular item in the budget. At the beginning of the fiscal year, the clerk enters the budgeted amount in the column headed “unexpended balance.” As payments are made they are listed in the column headed “amount” and added to the preceding total in the “total to date” column and deducted from the “unexpended balance” column. Thus the administrator may at any time and without computation determine for each budget item the total amount spent and the amount not spent. Since a separate sheet is used for each account classification, this system is more flexible than the columnar system which is limited to the number of columns on a sheet. Thus, if the administrator wishes to keep costs of individual buildings or departments separate, it is only necessary to insert additional sheets. A further advantage is that the unexpended balance in each account is always available without special notations or computations.

Encumbrance record—The information available in the preceding form is exceedingly valuable but the superintendent who relies solely upon the facts recorded there to guide him in administering his budget is “locking the stable after the horse is stolen.” If he is to be really effective in using his budget, he will need to consider also the obligations already undertaken in the form of contracts and purchase orders.

The encumbrance record is designed to assist the superintendent in controlling “commitments.” For this purpose there will be an “encumbrance record” sheet for each item of the budget. As con-

tracts are signed or purchase orders issued the amount is recorded on the proper encumbrance record sheet in the column "amount encumbered" and added to the previous amount in the column "balance outstanding."

As payments are made on contracts or purchase orders the amount is recorded in the proper "amount liquidated" column and deducted from the "balance outstanding." The amount to be so recorded should be the amount encumbered. It will not always be the amount actually paid, for example, a purchase order may have been issued for twenty-five textbooks at \$2 each, making a total of \$50 recorded as in encumbrance. When the bill is presented there may be a discount of 2 percent for cash, making the net payment \$49. Since the \$49 payment completely wipes out the encumbrance of \$50 the amount liquidated is \$50, not \$49. Or, again, suppose instead of a discount of 2 percent the bill shows an express charge of \$2 so that the net payment is \$52 instead of \$50. The encumbrance was "liquidated" even tho it took \$52 to do it. The "amount liquidated" is \$50, not \$52. In other words, the amount liquidated is not necessarily the amount of cash spent but the amount originally estimated as needed for the particular purpose. This is illustrated in Figure XXXVIII; compare the "amount liquidated" with the corresponding entries in the expenditure ledger.

The bookkeeper must of course use care in "liquidating" or recording sums which pay only part of a purchase order or contract. He need have no difficulty in such cases if he simply remembers that he sets aside an estimated amount when he "encumbers" and erases the estimates when he "liquidates." The "balance outstanding" is in effect the amount set aside to pay bills that are known to be due some time in the future.

The administrator will use this record in conjunction with the expenditure ledger whenever he contemplates an expenditure. By referring to the "unexpended balance" in the expenditure ledger and deducting therefrom the corresponding "balance outstanding" as shown in the encumbrance record he will know exactly the budget amount still available for the particular purpose. He will have no excuse for exceeding any budgeted amount without first making the necessary budget transfer or adjustment. In other words, he can, if he will, lock the stable *before* the horse is stolen.

General ledger—The purpose of the general ledger is to summarize other accounts and to serve as a means of proving the accuracy of the accounting records. The nature of the accounts will depend largely upon local needs but the following may well be considered as typical of most needs.

Cash—Charge (debit) with all cash receipts; credit with all disbursements.

Petty cash—Charge with the amount set up for petty cash; credit with amount turned back to reduce the petty cash fund.

Taxes receivable—Charge with the amount of the tax levy; credit with tax collections or cancellations.

Miscellaneous accounts receivable—Charge with amounts due district when bills are rendered; credit with collections or cancellations.

Short-term loans payable—Credit with amount borrowed on short-term loans; charge (or debit) with amounts paid to liquidate loans.

Encumbrance obligations—Credit with amount of purchase orders and contracts issued; debit with amounts paid or canceled.

Unexpended appropriations—Credit with amount appropriated in the budget; debit with amount of expenditures.

The form for the general ledger is a four-column ledger sheet in which two columns are used for debit and credit entries and two for balances (see Figure XXXVII). While the general ledger is a very useful record for summarizing and control purposes it is not absolutely essential. Its use requires some knowledge of elementary bookkeeping. If that is lacking the general ledger may well be omitted from the system.

Accounting Documents

The purpose of accounting documents is to facilitate and systematize business procedures. If properly organized, they actually save time while improving accuracy of accounting processes and making immediately available important information.

Figure XXXIX graphically illustrates the flow of accounting documents from the very beginning of a transaction involving the expenditure of money to the final payment of the obligation. The several forms are listed, the functions or activities are outlined, and the ultimate disposition of each copy of the documents is given. The chart thus presents a compact summary of the steps to be followed in incurring and paying liabilities.

The chart and the forms illustrated here were developed for use in the smaller school districts of the state of New York. The pro-

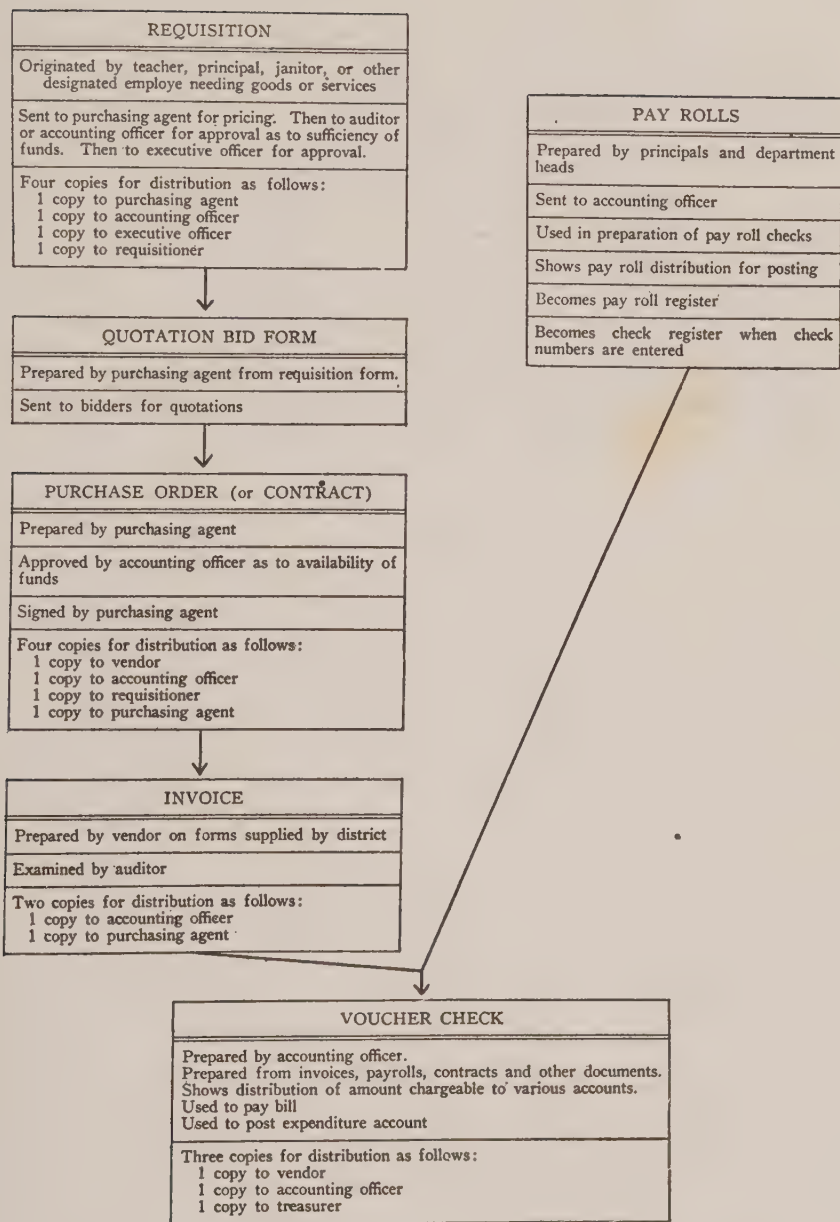


FIGURE XXXIX.—CHART OF PURCHASE AND EXPENDITURE DOCUMENTS

PURCHASE REQUISITION

Date Wanted

Signed _____
Requisitioner

Copy 4 to Requisitioner

[illegible]

(To be filled in by Auditor)		
Budget Appropriation Item		

Auditor

Approved: _____
Executive Officer

[388]

cedures outlined represent a very complete plan of operation. The administrator should carefully analyze these suggestions and make such adjustments as will fit his local conditions. It may be that more copies of the form are suggested than are actually needed but the number can easily be changed to suit conditions.

Purchase requisition—A purchase requisition should be made out in quadruplicate (three carbon copies) by an authorized employee having a need for services or materials (see Figure XL). The requisitioner should fill in the date of issue; the date wanted; the school, activity, or department for which the purchase is to be made; and the quantity, description, and purpose of the article. He should then forward all four copies to the person authorized to make purchases who should insert the estimated unit and total prices, and assign a number. All four copies should then be sent to the book-keeper who should indicate the appropriation accounts to be charged. The four copies should then be sent to the executive officer for approval.

An executive officer's approval should involve, first, a determination as to whether the proposed expenditure complies with the policies of the board of education; second, whether the goods or services are desirable from the standpoint of the educational program; and third, whether the proposed expenditure is in harmony with the operating budget.

Quotation bid form—In order that the budget appropriations may be properly charged at the time a purchase order is issued and also in order to secure the advantage of competitive bidding, it is usually desirable, before making a purchase, to secure quotations covering the items requested. To facilitate this many school systems have developed forms similar to the one shown (see Figure XLI).

Purchase order—A purchase order is a document which instructs the vendor to deliver certain goods or services (see Figure XLII). It is important that every transaction other than one involving a continuing contractual relationship be initiated by a formal document, namely, a purchase order.

A requisition represents a written request and does not necessarily involve the expenditure of money since the request may be denied. A purchase order, on the other hand, is the document which very definitely commits the school district to an obligation. So far as the

QUOTATION BID FORM

This bid number must appear on all correspondence or quotations.

Address

Check one ☐ 1 Quotations will be received at this office until
☐ 2 Sealed bids will be received at this office until at which time they
will be formally opened in accordance with the regulations on the reverse side of this sheet.

Purchasing Agent

Bids to be delivered to.....

[illegible]

The above bids are submitted in accordance with the regulations on the reverse side of this sheet.

Signature of Bidder

THIS IS NOT AN ORDER.

FIGURE XLI.—SCHOOL DISTRICT BID FORM

actual expending of money is concerned, it is an original document originating with the purchasing agent after a requisition has been forwarded to him which bears the approval of the executive officer. The distribution of the four copies of the purchase order is as follows: Copy No. 1 should be sent to the vendor; Copy No. 2 should be retained by the accounting officer for record and filing; Copy No. 3 should be retained and filed by the purchasing agent as his memorandum; and Copy No. 4 should be sent to the requisitioner as evidence that the order has been placed.

In order to make the use of the purchase order effective the board of education should provide by resolution (a) that only those purchase orders certified by the accounting officer of the district are valid purchase orders; (b) that the district will not be liable for any purchase orders which do not bear this certification; and (c) that any person who issues purchase orders without certification is personally liable.

When the commodities have been received the requisitioner or purchasing agent should check the delivery and so indicate in the next to the last column on the right-hand side of the form. This should be done on the copy which was sent to the requisitioner, and should be forwarded to the bookkeeper after delivery has been completed and checked. It is suggested that the purchasing agent file the third copy of the purchase order numerically, and the fourth copy, which will contain advice of delivery, alphabetically by vendor, so that it will be convenient for him to locate this copy when he receives the invoice from the vendor.

The smaller school district wishing to dispense with the requisition form may use the purchase order as the first document in the transaction. In this case the requisitioner should confer with the purchasing agent regarding the items requisitioned, and assist in the preparation of the purchase order. Then, after the purchase order is sent to the bookkeeper and certified as to the availability of funds, it should be sent to the executive officer for his approval before distribution, as outlined above. It will be noted in this case that executive approval of the purchase order is required. This is due to the fact that with the use of the requisition form as outlined, his approval is given on the requisition rather than on the purchase order. With the omission of the requisition in the cycle, executive approval must necessarily be shown on the purchase order.

Invoice form—The paying of bills involves three major functions; the first is concerned with the auditing of the bill to determine the accuracy of the amount; the second involves the legislative authorization for paying; and the third consists of the proper recording of the expenditure.

To facilitate the audit process, many school districts have adopted a practice of requiring bills to be presented on the form supplied by the school district. The advantages of such a practice are: (a) there will be a uniformity in the size and form of the bills rendered which will facilitate filing; (b) the form can be so designed that it will contain definite reference to the other accounting documents used by the school system; (c) invoices when consecutively numbered facilitate the processes of auditing; and (d) there will be less likelihood that bills will be paid twice if they are rendered on school district forms.

The essential information on the invoice form should be: (a) the name and address of claimant; (b) definite description of each commodity or service billed; (c) quantity of each; (d) unit price of each; (e) amount charged for each; (f) total amount of invoice; (g) date of delivery; (h) delivery point; (i) purchase order number; (j) account to be charged; and (k) certificate of approval of the department head or operating executive officer. It will be noted in Figure XLIII that the auditor's approval does not simply amount to a perfunctory "O.K." but is a certificate that the goods or services specified were received in accordance with the requirements and terms of the purchase order, that they were for the use of the school district, and that they are properly chargeable to the appropriation indicated on the invoice.

The audit function itself involves several steps: (a) the vendor's invoice should be compared with the original purchase order and quotation bid form to determine whether the goods delivered agree with those ordered, whether prices conform to quotations, and whether extensions and footings are correct; (b) it should be determined whether the goods or services have been definitely authorized by the proper officers; (c) the auditor should check the invoice against the proper appropriation account to determine whether sufficient funds are available in that appropriation; (d) a careful check should be made to make sure that the bill has not been paid previously; and (e) the auditor should determine by reference to the

Invoice No. 33

SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. _____

INVOICE

All bills must be prepared on this form in duplicate and mailed to

Date _____ 193

To

Purchasing Agent

Address

Address

Prepare a separate bill for each purchase order

Submit in duplicate

[illegible]

Checked by _____

Purchasing Agent

The undersigned claimant states that he is fully acquainted with the facts herein stated; that the said claimant is the real party in interest, that the labor performed and materials furnished and the money expended as stated in said claim have been actually performed, furnished and expended at the times and places in the manner specified therein, and that the prices charged therefor are the prices specified in the contract and if there is no contract therefor, are the reasonable market prices therefor; that no previous claim has ever been presented for the work, materials or expenses or any part thereof has been paid.

I hereby certify that the labor performed, materials furnished and moneys expended as stated herein were actually performed, furnished or expended at the times and places specified and the cost thereof is a proper charge against school district funds.

Auditor

Signed _____

By

Address

FIGURE XLIII.—SCHOOL DISTRICT INVOICE FORM

copy of the purchase order or other documents that the goods or services have been actually delivered, that the quantities shown on the invoice are correct, and that the quality complies with the original order.

The processes of auditing therefore require the comparison of the invoice with the original requisition, the quotation, and the purchase order, and verification of goods received as shown either on the copy of the purchase order or on a separate form. It is apparent, therefore, that a system of numbering should be employed which will make it possible readily to identify each of the above documents. This cross-reference is usually accomplished by means of a serial number on the purchase order which should then appear on all subsequent documents.

Filing

The system used for filing records, papers, correspondence, catalogs, price lists, and the like should follow standard, established procedures and before an administrator attempts to set up an efficient office system, he should acquaint himself with accepted theories and practices in office filing. He may obtain this information from the head of his commercial department, if his system offers commercial subjects, or he may call in a consultant from a nearby business college. The point is, that unless a standard practice of filing is used, the superintendent's successor will be at a disadvantage in locating data, and records which he may need will be hard to find.

Purchasing Supplies and Equipment

The problem of efficient purchasing of supplies in a small system is not so much a matter of the method employed as it is the ability of the purchasing agent to know values. Large urban systems have testing equipment and laboratories for this purpose. Small school systems must depend upon the personal judgment of the purchaser. Low-priced supplies and materials may be much more expensive than higher-priced articles if values are not taken into consideration.⁴ It is not the price in dollars and cents that is important, but the

⁴ There are a number of agencies thru which a superintendent can obtain helpful information; for example: *The American Consumer* 6: 1-32; August 1938. New York: Consumer Publications Inc. (205 E. 42nd St.). ¶ U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Consumers' Counsel. *Consumers' Guide* 4: 2-19; July 26, 1937. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. ¶ *Consumers' Digest* 2: 1-80; July 1937. New York: Consumers' Research, Inc. (80 Lafayette St.) ¶ U. S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards. *Services of the National Bureau of Standards to the Consumer*. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, 1937. 27 p.

quality of the article in relation to its cost. Low-priced pencils, for example, may be more expensive than higher-priced ones, if their quality is such that they break easily and wear down quickly. The same is true of chairs and furniture. If a higher-priced chair or desk costs twice as much and gives ten times as much service as a cheaper one, it is actually cheaper in the long run. It does not follow, however, that the higher-priced article is always to be preferred. Frequently higher-priced articles are no better and sometimes are even inferior to lower-priced ones. Price alone is no criterion upon which to base a purchase.

Janitor supplies, such as floor oils, liquid soap, cleaning powders, and disinfectants, are especially difficult for the untrained purchasing agent to buy intelligently. Chase and Schlink, in *Your Money's Worth*,⁵ report one case where "disinfecting spray, made of formalin, perfume, and Lake Michigan water, was marketed under a brand name at the rate of \$62 a barrel. When its composition was made known, the price dropped to 47 cents a barrel." Scores of similar examples where unreasonable prices have been charged because the purchaser was unfamiliar with the ingredients of the article are mentioned by Linn.⁶

The National School Supply Association has endeavored to assist the purchaser by establishing various fair trade practices. For example, liquid soap which carries a certificate of content approved by the association may be purchased with comparative safety.

A second basic factor in the problem of efficient purchasing in a small system is the ability of the purchasing agent to know what he is buying and why. Inexperienced administrators, and purchasing agents remote from actual classroom conditions, frequently purchase devices, equipment, and reference materials that are useless, antiquated, and unsound. It is not uncommon for maps, charts, and services to be unloaded on small school systems and rural school teachers by unscrupulous salesmen who take an unfair advantage of the buyer's lack of experience. A strong sense of sales resistance is a desirable qualification for any purchasing agent to possess, and especially for a young man beginning his professional life as the head of a small school system.

It should not be assumed, however, from the foregoing discussion

⁵ Chase, Stuart, and Schlink, F. J. *Your Money's Worth*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 88.

⁶ Linn, Henry H. *Practical School Economics*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. 461 p.

that the vendor is in all cases unfair. Quite the opposite is more likely to be true, for the contribution to public education made by distributors of school supplies and textbooks is a service which the public has been slow in appreciating. The code of ethics of the National School Supply Association reaches a high level of ideals. Sales representatives of publishers and supply houses are frequently able, unselfish, educational advisers, and many a successful schoolman today owes part of his success at least to advice given him early in the game by experienced salesmen who had seen other schoolmen start and stumble. "Cut your garment to fit your budgetary cloth and many of your troubles will be eliminated," was a bit of advice given by an old book salesman to a young man who was about to enter his first position as a superintendent of schools. All thru his career this advice proved useful.

Competitive Purchasing

It is a debatable question under present economic conditions as to just how much financial advantage is gained today by competitive purchasing for smaller school systems. With supply houses and paper manufacturers closely associated in trade organizations, less and less advantages are obtained by calling for bids on small orders. However, trade customs differ in various sections of the country and where there is still a practice for the nearby distributor and dealer to charge all the trade will support, calling for bids is the only safe procedure to follow.

Purchasing in larger quantities and in wholesale lots, cooperatively with nearby school systems, of such staple articles as paper, pencils, and janitor supplies is more likely to result in lowering costs than the mere device of calling for bids, but here again the purchaser must be careful of what he buys. He must not stock too heavily because the dangers of a falling market may later rob him of his gain. It is also true that supplies purchased for use in the distant future frequently cost more in interest charges than was saved by the job lot discount. Probably a safe procedure, except for unusual situations, is to limit purchasing to amounts required for one year's consumption. The uncertainties of long-term forecasting in the commercial world make purchasing for distant future use extremely hazardous.

Many schoolboards, and some state regulations, require that purchases larger than \$100, or some other fixed amount, must be made

by bids. There is much to be said in favor of such a regulation besides the possibility of savings in cost. If specifications are carefully prepared and if quotations are carefully checked for quality as well as for costs, the school system is assured of rock-bottom prices. It furthermore protects the superintendent or purchasing agent from charges of favoritism or graft.⁷ Bid purchasing tends to develop confidence on the part of the community and therein lies its chief advantage in a small school system. A regulation permitting a small price advantage to local dealers in return for prompt delivery, exchange, or return of goods may be justifiable.

Bids, if they are to have any value, should be carefully prepared in order that each competitor may present quotations on the same or similar article or service. If bids are not sufficiently definite in detail, bidders may present quotations based on such widely different materials that prices mentioned will have no comparative values and instead of the school system's realizing a saving, ordering from the lowest bidder may actually result in paying more than the market value of the article in question. Moreover, samples for the purpose of making comparisons should be required whenever necessary and the purchaser should always reserve the right to accept or reject any or all proposals in whole or in part.

Item-by-item bids are usually preferred to a grand total quotation as the former provides the buyer with an opportunity to do business with more than one bidder without interfering with his privilege of awarding the total contract to one concern.

The cost of preparing specifications and their proper advertising and publicity is a factor that must be taken into consideration when calling for bids. The efficient purchasing agent will devise simple forms for bids on supplies and equipment and will maintain a mailing list of companies handling the desired goods to which these specifications may be sent.

Requests for bids for repair work and larger operations should be advertised according to local requirements and in addition should be sent to all concerns known to be qualified to do the work.

Seasonal Purchasing

Purchasers of supplies and equipment should study market fluctuations in an attempt to determine seasonal advantages. Many super-

⁷ De Young, Chris A. *Budgeting in Public Schools*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1936. p. 387.

intendents report that instructional supplies can be purchased most economically during the spring months. In regions where this trade condition prevails, the efficient school administrator will avail himself of this advantage. An additional argument for spring purchasing is that it insures delivery before schools open in September. Orders affording the vendor plenty of time in which to deliver tend to be lower in price than those requiring immediate delivery during rush periods.

Cooperative Buying

Where several nearby school systems group their orders for staple supplies, cooperative buying has much to commend itself on paper, but in actual practice a number of problems are involved which deprive the plan of many of its supposed advantages. There is no doubt but that large quantity purchasing results in lower prices without affecting quality. It is also true that many articles of instruction such as paper, pencils, crayons, chalk, and towels, are of universal use and, unlike textbooks, meet the same needs in all communities. Consequently, if an arrangement can be devised for the pooling of orders, lower prices will result.

A considerable part of all costs is due to expenses of distribution. The cooperative purchaser must be careful that he is not merely transferring the cost of distribution from the seller to himself. When supplies are purchased jointly lowest prices prevail when the entire shipment is sent to one central station. Schoolmen who have ordered the goods must direct further distribution from this central station, and it is at this point that a cost analysis will determine whether or not a real saving results. Benefits may be greatly reduced or eliminated entirely by such costs as: (a) sorting the shipment, (b) sending local truckmen for the goods, (c) correcting errors, and (d) replacing goods damaged in shipment.

Legal complications also arise in some states over the status of revenue received by the school system sponsoring the original order. In Massachusetts, for example, all revenues coming into a city or town regardless of their sources go directly into the municipal treasury and may not be used for any purpose until reappropriated. This means that a school system paying for and later selling part of, a shipment of supplies finds its appropriation available for school purposes reduced to the extent of the amount of goods sold because

this sum has now reverted to the municipal treasury without having been used for the benefit of the schools for which it was originally appropriated.

If, however, arrangements can be made with supply houses to ship part of cooperative orders to several destinations, and if separate bills can be sent directly to each school system participating in the group buying, many of the obstacles mentioned above will be removed. But here again purchasers immediately lose the advantage of buying in carload lots shipped directly from the mill or warehouse. It is carload buying that gives large school systems their chief price advantage over the purchasing power of smaller school systems.

Textbook Buying

Textbook purchasing should not be placed on a price basis. There is little relation between the price of a textbook and its value to the child who is to use it. Books should be selected primarily because of content. If, on rare occasions when a book has been selected which is considered best fitted to serve the needs of a special teaching situation, it is discovered to cost more than the budget allows for that purpose, either a second choice will have to suffice, or only a part of the supply may be purchased in one year leaving the remainder for subsequent budgets.

The construction of the book, quality of paper, type of binding, and typography of the printed page should rightfully be considered in the selection of a textbook.

In those states where school systems are limited to textbooks on a state list, purchasing of books involves problems similar to supply purchasing and under favorable conditions might well be done cooperatively with other school systems.

Savings in the purchasing of textbooks frequently may be made by ordering direct from the publisher rather than from a nearby depository, but here again the nature of each individual order will determine which course to pursue. Small orders of assorted items, calling for a variety of books, will probably be cheaper if delivered in one shipment from a depository, while a sizable order of books from one publisher will probably cost less if purchased direct.

The purchasing of subscription books, except from a few concerns with nationally known reputations, should be guarded against at all times. These books are frequently reprints of obsolete editions,

rebound and issued under new titles. They are usually sold by high-pressure salesmen who receive commissions ranging as high as 60 percent of the selling price in some cases. Before a school superintendent places an order for such a book, or set of books, or service, he should consult some qualified librarian or the American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the responsibility of the superintendent concerning his duty to warn and guard his teachers against the risk of signing for such books. The abuses are so serious that the superintendent may well be justified in refusing to permit all book salesmen to interview his teachers and to advise his teachers to refuse to see any salesmen. Annually thousands of rural teachers all over the country are swindled out of millions of dollars by these high-pressure agents who are little short of racketeers in the methods they employ. Rural teachers, especially untrained teachers who are anxious to improve themselves, are the special victims of this vicious trade, altho the young school administrator himself is by no means exempt from the risk.

So serious is this problem that attention is called to an article in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for February 1938. Under the heading "The Supreme Court and Subscription Books" appears the following:

The United States Supreme Court in November rendered a unanimous decision, condemning the fraud and deception of the "give-away" plan as used by certain subscription book publishers. The decision in this case—Federal Trade Commission against the Standard Education Society of Minnesota and the Standard Encyclopedia Company of Illinois—has particular interest for school people.

The "give-away" plan has taken such forms as the following: Publishers of a certain encyclopedia offer sets of books as "gifts to a few selected people" with the understanding that the recipient pay a certain amount for a reference service, yearbooks, and the like, whose value is represented as being five times the price charged. As a matter of fact, the cost of this extra service is the approximate selling price of the encyclopedia. The recipient of the "gift" signs a card of acceptance and also signs cards addressed to his friends, recommending the encyclopedia.

A similar practice, which victimizes school children, their parents, and principals of their schools, is that which provides that when fifteen sets of a certain encyclopedia are purchased by parents in the community, a free set is presented to the school. A gift page in volume one of each set given to a school lists the names of purchasers who have contributed toward this special set. The salesman

is advised to obtain from the principal a letter recommending the set as "the most usable encyclopedia," or asserting, "I wouldn't have anything but the Blank Encyclopedia in my home."

The Federal Trade Commission has several times issued its cease and desist orders against publishers who used questionable schemes in selling. . . . This decision of the Supreme Court is important in that it establishes a precedent for future decisions and upholds the action of the Federal Trade Commission. However, the decision will not stop unethical practices. As the *Publishers' Weekly* for November 20, 1937, points out: "The book trade will recognize that such a decision from a federal court emphasizes the necessity for continual watchfulness on the part of the public and by the Subscription Book Committee."

Insurance

A committee of the New York State School Boards Association prepared a bulletin on insurance in which are listed 33 hazards for which insurance protection is available. The list ranged all the way from "Automobile collision or upset" to "Water damage—to property of others." As a matter of interest the list of hazards together with the protection available is reproduced at this point.

Property Losses

Possibilities of Loss	Protection Available
1. Automobile collision or upset.	1. Collision insurance.
2. Boiler explosion—property damage.	2. Boiler inspection and insurance.
3. Burglary—school safes and vaults.	3. Mercantile safe insurance.
4. Burglary—open school contents.	4. Mercantile open stock insurance.
5. Damage to automobiles caused by tornado, cyclone, windstorm, hail, earthquake, explosion, and water damage.	5. Special combined additional coverage endorsement to an automobile fire policy.
6. Damage to buildings caused by windstorm, hail, explosion, riot, aircraft, and motor vehicles.	6. Additional hazards supplemental contract insurance endorsed on a fire insurance policy.
7. Demolition—consequential damage	7. Demolition insurance.
8. Earthquake—buildings.	8. Earthquake insurance.
9. Fire and lightning—buildings.	9. Fire insurance.
10. Fire, lightning, and transportation—automobiles.	10. Automobile fire insurance.
11. Glass breakage—buildings.	11. Plate glass insurance.
12. Glass breakage—automobiles.	12. Automobile plate glass insurance.
13. Hold up.	13. Outside and inside hold-up insurance.
14. Loss—packages lost in mail.	14. Parcel post insurance.

Property Losses (Continued)

Possibilities of Loss	Protection Available
15. Rental value.	15. Rental value insurance.
16. Smoke damage—from oil burning system.	16. Supplemental contract endorsed on fire policy.
17. Theft, robbery, and pilferage—automobile.	17. Automobile theft insurance.
18. Sprinkler leakage.	18. Sprinkler leakage insurance.
19. Transportation—movable properties.	19. Musical instruments floater, camera floater, fine arts floater, miscellaneous inland marine floater.
20. Water damage.	20. Water damage insurance.

Liability for Damages

21. Automobile—injuries to the public.	21. Automobile liability insurance.
22. Automobile—damage to property of others.	22. Automobile property damage insurance.
23. Boiler explosions—injuries to the public.	23. Boiler inspection and insurance.
24. Buildings and grounds—injuries to the public.	24. Owners, landlords, and tenants public liability insurance.
24. Buildings and grounds—damage to property of others.	24. Owners, landlords, and tenants property damage insurance.
25. Elevators—injuries to public.	25. Elevator liability insurance.
25. Elevators—damage to property of others.	25. Elevator property damage insurance.
26. Employees—injuries to.	26. Workmen's compensation insurance.
27. Negligence of contractors.	27. Owners protective liability insurance.
28. Teachers' liability (not a responsibility of the school).	28. Teachers' liability insurance.
29. Teams—injuries to public.	29. Teams liability insurance.
30. Water damage—to property of others.	30. Water damage legal liability insurance.

Direct Financial Loss

31. Dishonesty of treasurers, collectors, and employees handling money.	31. Fidelity bonds.
32. Forgery and alterations of checks and drafts.	32. Check-alteration and forgery insurance.

Miscellaneous

33. Loss of registered mail.	33. Registered mail insurance. ⁸
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⁸ New York State School Boards Association. *An Insurance Program—For the Guidance of School Boards*. Mount Vernon: the Association (9 South Third Ave.), 1936.

Experienced insurance men find it necessary to specialize in a few branches of insurance, for they do not hope to master all of the intricacies of complicated and technically written insurance contracts. How then can a busy superintendent expect to do anything very significant about insurance? Fortunately, there are some practical and common sense angles to the buying of insurance which any intelligent layman can follow if he will.

Insurance Adviser

Boards of education and administrators should seek the guidance and advice of a trustworthy and competent insurance man. In larger systems such a man may perhaps be employed on a fee or salary basis as an insurance adviser. In smaller districts this is not feasible so the board of education may select an agent who would serve all the functions of an adviser in return for a little larger share of the business if it is to be divided among local agents. In some communities there may be some sort of organization of insurance men such as a local board or a craft club which may be invited to appoint a member or committee to assist the board of education.

The beginning of the development of a sound insurance program is a careful survey of the whole insurance situation. This task should fall largely upon the insurance adviser. He will want to examine and list every hazard to which the school is exposed, to make a complete inventory of all insurance carried, to examine all policies to determine exactly what is covered and what is not, to check on the companies which wrote the policies to determine whether they are sound, to get a copy of the rate schedule, to study and to analyze all penalties for hazards, and to make a sound appraisal so he may determine the insurable value of the buildings.

After the insurance adviser has obtained all of this information he will study it carefully so he can assist the board of education in:

- (1) Selecting the kind of insurance needed and suitable kinds of policies.
- (2) Selecting the companies from which to buy insurance.
- (3) Arranging expiration dates so that premium payments will be divided evenly.
- (4) Determining the amount of coverage, deciding whether present coverage is excessive or inadequate.
- (5) Making structural changes in the building which would eliminate hazards thereby producing lower rates; for example, installation of automatic sprinklers and fire doors.

- (6) Changing housekeeping methods to effect lower rates; for example, getting rid of rubbish under stairways and in basements, abandoning oily floors, and using fire-proof metal containers for oily dust cloths or getting rid of them entirely.
- (7) Developing a program of fire prevention thru good management and watchful attention to hazardous conditions.

Types of Insurance Protection

Insurance is partly a matter of purchasing protection against property loss, liability for damages, or direct financial loss but like any other purchase the school must decide what protection it needs and then purchase at the most reasonable price possible. Since fire insurance is usually the largest single item in the insurance bill it perhaps offers the largest possibilities for waste or economy. Numerous cases of administrators finding ways and means of reducing the cost of fire insurance are reported in periodicals such as the *American School Board Journal*, *Nation's Schools*, and *School Executive*.⁹ Generally these savings are effected without impairing the protection purchased. Usually these savings are due to one or more of the following:

- (1) Elimination of overinsurance—that is, oftentimes the amount of coverage exceeds the amount that could be collected in case of a total loss. An accurate appraisal is necessary to avoid this difficulty.
- (2) Scheduling insurance policies on a three- or five-year instead of annual basis.
- (3) Sometimes blanket policies—that is, covering a number of buildings or covering both the building and its contents in one policy—are less expensive, sometimes more expensive than ordinary policies.
- (4) Eliminating penalty hazards.

Fire is not the only hazard to which property is exposed; there are also others such as windstorm, explosion (without fire), smoke damage (particularly from oil burning apparatus), water damage, sprinkler leakage, riot, and civil commotion. All these hazards may be insured by fire insurance companies either in separate contracts or in some cases by supplemental contracts at special rates. Some kinds of property are portable such as musical instruments, fine paintings, tapestries, rare books, cameras and projection machines, and athletic equipment. These can be covered by a "floater" policy.

There are two kinds of hazards incident to the use of district-owned automobiles and buses, loss of or damage to the equipment

⁹ For detailed suggestions see: Viles, N. E. *Improving the Insurance Program in the Local School Districts*. Jefferson City, Mo.: Midland Printing Co., 1934. 100 p.

(fire, theft, windstorm, and collision), and liability for damage. Any insurance agent can explain the policies covering these hazards.

Casualty insurance covers a wide range of hazards most of which come under the general heading of liability for damage. The chief of these are as follows:

(1) *Owners, landlords, and tenants public liability for accidents occurring in the building or on the grounds*—Ordinarily grandstands and bleachers require additional premiums. The rate is based upon the size of the building, the street frontage of ground, and the area of the site.

(2) *Teachers' liability*—In New York boards of education are required to protect teachers against loss thru liability while they are on duty. The board of education is covered by the owners, landlords, and tenants public liability policy, and it may if it wishes protect the entire faculty by the payment of a small per capita charge.

(3) *Public liability on automotive equipment*—In addition to the coverage for liability of district-owned equipment there is also available a non-ownership policy which protects the board of education against damages resulting from an employee's car involved in an accident while the employee is using the car in line of duty.

(4) *Workman's compensation*—Some states require employers to carry insurance to compensate employees for injuries caused by the negligence of the employers and may or may not include teachers as employees, but it does include the custodial staff, repair men engaged by the board of education, and clerical and office assistants.

(5) *School official bonds*—All school officials who handle money or who have any direct control over district money should be covered by a surety bond. This protects the board of education against loss thru malfeasance and the individual is covered against false charges of dishonesty.

Another matter of good insurance management is that of keeping suitable records and promptly reporting either property losses or accidents likely to result in liability claims. Concerning the latter, it is probably sufficient to recommend that every loss or accident should be reported to the insurance agent at once so he can file with the insurance company the required report. Insurance records should include (a) an insurance register which will list all insurance policies giving date of the policy, date of expiration, kind of insurance, number of the policy, name of company, name and address of agent, amount of coverage, and amount of premium (see Figure XLIV); (b) inventories of plant and equipment with special emphasis upon movable equipment covered by a "floater policy"; and (c) appraisal reports which should be filed in a safe place.

Control of Capital Outlay

Since this chapter is concerned with the expenditure management phase of capital outlay, consideration is not given here to matters of planning, utilization, or construction. Here we are chiefly concerned with problems incident to financing major capital outlay projects which in small school districts is commonly accomplished thru the sale of bonds. Hence, our immediate problem is that of debt administration.

When a school district issues bonds, it has obligated itself to future payments which it cannot later rescind if it is to retain its self-respect and good credit standing. Hence, it behooves the administrator to give very careful thought to the consequences of such long-term commitments. This calls for some very serious long-term planning (see Chapter XV "Planning thru Budgeting"). In this process he will need to weigh carefully the annual charges for debt service, any increases in operating costs resulting from the expansion of the educational program which may be part of the occasion for the new building, and any cost of heating or caring for a new building which may be an addition to the existing plant or a replacement of a smaller overcrowded structure. Too often plans for financing new buildings omit consideration of additional current expense costs that are the direct outgrowth of the building program. These additional expenditures he must then weigh against the community's ability to pay, bearing in mind that the community may be either growing in population and taxable valuation or declining in such resources. He will need to look far into the future and predict on the basis of the past the taxpaying ability that will be available to pay for the debt that is to be incurred. This planning process will also include consideration of the possibility sometime in the future of still another new building project. If there is any likelihood of such a project, he will so arrange the payment of the debt under consideration in terms of possible future additional indebtedness. So far as possible he will make plans which will enable the community to pay for the obligations of the first building before any obligations for the second building are undertaken.

There is no royal road to success in such planning. There are technics and devices which will supplement good judgment and hard thinking: a fifteen- or twenty-year analysis of population trends,

both total population and school population; the analysis of migration over a period of time; the consequences of a falling birth-rate; the analysis of school attendance as compared with school census revealing the probable time when the "saturation point" will be reached; a listing of possible additions to the educational program, particularly as they would relate to an increase in the instructional staff; and a thoro survey of the existing plant to determine the probable life and usefulness. These are all items of information which will enable the administrator to formulate a sound program. The administrator who is confronted with the problem of a building program will do well to carefully analyze two or three comprehensive building surveys which have been made by competent authorities to be found in many better schools of education and teachers colleges. By analyzing these he will be able to observe the use of technics and devices for supplementing judgment.

Lack of comprehensive planning, neglect to carefully anticipate all expenditures occasioned by a new building, and failure to consider the ability of the community to meet these expenditures have frequently resulted in defaults of bonds or taxpayers' revolts which culminated in statutory or even constitutional debt limits. Altho we deplore such arbitrary limitations, perhaps we must admit that they are at least in part the consequences of overambitious and too optimistic building programs. The administrator of a school system in a state where such limitations do not exist will be wise to profit by his neighbor's experience. In addition to careful planning and anticipating the entire tax load of the program, he will discount the revenue-producing value of a passing pride in a new school building, and will coolly appraise the ability and willingness of the community to raise funds year in and year out. He will insist upon competent and efficient building planning. He will not consider the architectural adornments which the community cannot afford, but will tax the architect's ability to the limit to provide pleasing effects at little or no cost. He will insist upon a sound building in which the materials used are those which are most economical in the long run, so that the ultimate cost of the building, taking into consideration the cost of retiring the bonds together with the cost of keeping the building in repair, are the lowest consistent with the needs of the community.

After all this preliminary work has been done comes the actual process of floating a bond issue which involves many technical considerations. The major considerations are as follows:

(1) Bonds should mature within as short a period as possible according to the community's ability to pay, for the sooner the bonds are paid the smaller will be the tax load for interest charges. Under no condition should bonds be issued for a longer period than the estimated life of the improvement. Thirty years is generally considered as a maximum desirable term for bonds issued to finance fire resistive buildings. For non-fire resistive buildings, the terms should be considerably shorter.

(2) Only serial bonds should be issued—sinking fund or term bonds are not ordinarily desirable for small school districts.

(3) Bonds should not be sold for less than par value. Careful study of the bond market should be made to determine the prevailing interest rates.

(4) Ordinarily (not always), it is best to sell to the bidder offering the lowest rate of interest. Exceptions should be made only when it can be clearly demonstrated mathematically that the higher premium (usually accompanied by higher rates) is advantageous in the long run.

(5) Give consideration to the use of callable bonds. Their use tends to increase the interest rate slightly, but will permit considerable saving by earlier redemption.

(6) Seek sound advice regarding the best time to sell bonds—generally bonds should not be sold during the summer months unless rates are extremely low or other conditions are favorable.

(7) Schedule bonds so that interest and principal payment fall due during the time of year when revenues to pay them are most likely to be available.

(8) Secure the opinion of a nationally known bond attorney before advertising bonds for sale. He should draw up all necessary resolutions and advise the schoolboard in all steps. The bond attorney should approve the issue *before* the sale. It will often help lower the interest rate.

(9) Advertise bonds in financial journals with a nationwide circulation. *The Bond Buyer* (daily and weekly), the *Wall Street Jour-*

nal (daily), or the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* (weekly), are publications of this type.

(10) The bond attorney should assist in the preparation of the advertisement. The following suggestions are listed in a bulletin entitled *Marketing Municipal Bonds*, prepared by the Municipal Finance Officers Association whose headquarters are in Chicago:

Great care should be given to the notice of sale of a proposed bond issue. Contained therein should be a concise statement of:

- (1) Amount of bonds and purpose of issue.
- (2) Date, hour, and place that bids will be opened (specifying time as Eastern Standard, Eastern Daylight Saving time, etc.).
- (3) Date of bonds, maturity dates, and option dates if callable prior to maturity.
- (4) Bond denominations and option of the holder as to registration.
- (5) Basis of bidding. The bidder may be required to name an interest rate not to exceed a certain maximum (or a rate within a maximum and minimum range, but at no higher rate of interest than shall be required to insure the sale of the bond at par). A single rate of interest may be required or "split-rate" bidding allowed. The notice should also prescribe the multiples (one-fourth, one-tenth percent, etc.) in which rates may be expressed. All bids should be for "all or none" of the bonds.
- (6) Basis of award. The basis for determining the highest bidder should be stated. For example, the notice might read: "Comparison of bids will be made by taking the cost of interest to the city (school districts) at the rate named in the respective bids and deducting therefrom the premium bid."
- (7) The notice should also state: that no bid will be accepted for less than par value (if the law so requires); that any bid not complying with the terms of the notice may be rejected; the exact circumstances under which bids may be conditional; and that the right to reject any or all bids is reserved.
- (8) Amount of certified check or bank draft required as a deposit, and to whom payable; also a statement that no interest will be allowed upon the good faith check of the bidders, and that all deposits of unsuccessful bidders will be returned immediately after the bonds have been awarded.
- (9) Name of counsel that will approve legality of issue.
- (10) Statement that each proposal must be sealed and endorsed "Proposal for _____ (school) bonds."
- (11) Name and address of city (school) official to whom bids are to be mailed.
- (12) Statement that bonds will be delivered to the successful bidder at a specified time and place, or as soon as possible thereafter, upon the payment of the principal balance due plus accrued interest.
- (13) Whether cost of printing bonds and legal opinion will be paid by the municipality or not.
- (14) Whether provision has been made for the annual levy of a direct tax sufficient to meet the installments. . . . If the city's (school district) full faith and credit is also behind these revenue bonds, this fact should be stated.

(15) Total tax rate, and any constitutional or statutory limitations restricting debts and taxation for their payment.

(16) If the municipality (school district) has ever defaulted on the principal or interest of any of its obligations, the time and circumstances of same.

(17) Population according to last federal census and present conservative estimate of same.

(18) A statement that there is no litigation pending or threatened concerning the validity of this issue of bonds or of the corporate boundary lines or taxing powers of said municipality (school district) or the title of its present officials to their respective offices.

The journal carrying the paid advertisement will usually publish in conjunction therewith the latest financial statement (provided it is forwarded along with the notice of sale) as news information for its clientele, and the city is not expected to insert it as part of the paid advertisement. The financial statement should be in abbreviated form but should include: the conservative estimated value of real and personal properties, and assessed valuation; a statement of all overlapping debts and all overlapping governments; total debt outstanding (gross and net) on municipality proper, including bonds of all classes, short-term loans, unpaid bills, and judgments; outstanding indebtedness on account of water systems or other revenue-producing municipal enterprises (reported separately), and a statement as to the extent to which these enterprises are self-supporting; amount accumulated in the sinking funds, keeping separate the assets of self-supporting enterprises; and a complete history of tax collections. Those cities now using the Investment Bankers' Association *Report on Finances* in preparing financial statements will already have the above information in acceptable form.

Cities should also state in their advertisement that further information and statistics upon the proposed issue, the unit's finances and its economic life—commercial, industrial, or agricultural—are available in prospectus or circular form. The prospectus should be mailed without request to financial institutions that have built up a clientele in the city's securities or that would likely be interested in the city's obligations. Generally the prospectus is divided into three major parts: (1) financial statement of the municipality; (2) more complete information concerning the offered issue; and (3) facts upon the economic and social life of the community. The notice of sale itself, however, should contain sufficient information for any well-posted buyer to bid thereon.¹⁰

(11) Be prompt in making the award, in delivering the bonds, and above all, pay all installments and interest on time. Nothing will help more to sell school bonds to good advantage than a reputation for prompt payments on the part of all school districts. A few careless school districts may harm the credit of many other school districts.

(12) Set up a bond and interest record showing when payments of

¹⁰ Municipal Finance Officers Association. *Marketing Municipal Bonds*. Chicago: the Association (850 E. 58th St.).

interest and installments are due. Figure XLV should be made an integral part of the accounting system.

Cost Analysis

There is sometimes confusion in the use of terms particularly in the field of accounting. We have read or heard about "cost accounting systems" which in reality turn out to be only financial accounting systems. Financial accounting, as reviewed in an early section of this chapter, consists of the recording of financial transactions usually in terms which will make available certain types of information which the administrator needs from time to time. It is primarily for the purpose of accounting for moneys received and moneys paid out. In contrast with this kind of accounting there is another type which is not necessarily concerned with the recording of the exact amounts received and the exact amounts paid out but is vitally concerned with the actual cost of goods and services required in running the organization. It is, in a sense, a type of research, not ordinary bookkeeping.

The purpose of cost accounting or cost analysis is to provide the administrator with rather specific and detailed information regarding the actual "cost" of certain activities, units of work, or services rendered. Ideally, financial accounting should be such that it will facilitate cost analysis but quite obviously bookkeeping cannot be carried on regularly in the detail necessary for meaningful cost analysis. Furthermore, the nature of bookkeeping and financial accounting is such that the figures to be recorded cannot in their very nature be used as cost figures without first making certain kinds of adjustments or allowances.

A distinction must be made between disbursements and cost. Disbursements are briefly defined as the amounts in cash that are paid out for goods or services. Cost, on the other hand, as defined very simply and briefly by Morrison in *The Management of the School Money*¹¹ "is the value in money of goods or services used up." To illustrate the difference in the two terms let us suppose that \$100 was paid for instructional supplies in the course of a year. Some of these supplies were used during that year; some were not used until the following year. In determining the "cost" of supplies

¹¹ Morrison, Henry C. *The Management of the School Money*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. 522 p.

it would be necessary to use the amount representing the value of the supplies actually used, not the \$100 which was paid in cash. This illustration may appear to be very simple but when the analogy is carried clear thru all phases of the school program many rather complicating and confusing issues arise. For example, what is the "cost" of a school building used for school purposes? Obviously, to adhere to the definition, there are no figures in our financial accounting records that can be used. Consequently, it is necessary to make some rather careful estimates and computations. Some means must be devised for arriving at a reasonable figure for the value of the school plant "used up" in the course of the year. This is sometimes referred to as depreciation, the computation of which involves a comprehensive technic.

It is beyond the scope of this study to analyze all of the implications involved in the term "cost." It is important, however, that attention be called to the exactness required by the definition of the term "cost." To be meaningful, cost figures must be reduced to some measurable unit. It is not enough that we carefully determine the value of the supplies or services used up but we must relate them to some unit of product, such as the pupil in average daily attendance or the cubic volume of the schoolhouse. In other cases the unit may be the number of seats in a school bus or the number of miles the bus is required to travel. The list of units is almost inexhaustible. The administrator wishing to make a cost study must therefore select units which have a definite relationship to cost so that the outcome of his study will represent the cost per "sensible unit." The cost of instructional supplies per pupil in average daily attendance would seem to represent a reasonable relationship, but the cost of heating per pupil in average daily attendance is subject to grave questioning because it is not the pupil that is heated but the building. It costs as much to heat one pupil in a room with seven thousand cubic feet of space as it does to heat thirty pupils.

There are no hard or set rules that can be followed in making cost analyses. The administrator who desires the kind of information that can be obtained only thru cost analysis must rely upon his good sense and purposeful judgment to guide him in the use of his figures. Schoolmen frequently make cost studies and then compare their figures with costs of others. In doing so the administrator should make sure that the figures he uses are computed on exactly

the same basis as the figures with which he is comparing his own. He will need to make allowances for varying conditions and practices. He will need to interpret the figures with the utmost caution before coming to any definite conclusions. He will endeavor to ascertain the conditions which may cause variations in the figures he is using. For example, in analyzing transportation costs in otherwise analogous situations in which all of the elements are as nearly alike as possible, the basic prices of gasoline may make considerable difference in the cost and if overlooked may lead to erroneous conclusions. Or, two buildings of exactly the same size and construction, because of differences in exposure or wind pressure, may present entirely different problems in heating and cost.

Because of the difficulty in making allowances for varying conditions the administrator should use data from other school systems sparingly and confine his comparisons as much as possible to analogous figures for his own school for previous years. In this way he can ascertain the progress he has been making in the direction of economy and good management. This does not mean that he should never compare his unit cost with his neighbors or with state or county averages but he should understand that averages are not necessarily standards but only rough guiding posts which he can use to supplement his own cost data. He will not look at his neighbor's figures and assume that because his own are lower he is more efficient, or will he assume that because his neighbor's figures happen to be more favorable there is necessarily something wrong with his own management. But he certainly should become very cautious and seek to find out what changes can be made in his own management which will make his figures more favorable. Cost figures, after all, are only relative—they can never be standards of perfection.

CHAPTER XVII

Management of School Income

BASIC WAYS AND MEANS of more effectively harnessing existing economic ability have been treated in Chapter XIV, and toward the end of the discussion certain principles were considered which seem destined to control in educational finance. In this chapter support is very largely accepted as it is, but stress is laid upon the way school income should be handled. In this area the major influence is not so much any such principles as state responsibility, equalization, adaptability, or even adequacy as it is the prudential principle. While it is true that the better the school income is managed, the more adequate it becomes, it is of deep importance that school income and school outgo be handled efficiently and honestly so that good stewardship may prevail.¹

In local school systems, both large and small, it is probably true that the income side of school finance has received altogether too little consideration. For example, in the important matter of budgeting most of the emphasis was formerly, if it is not now, placed upon estimates of expenditure, with relatively little upon the receipts side of the plan. Receipts were treated as "in status quo"; were regarded as completely able to flex to meet whatever total of expenditure was planned; were ignored entirely; were left in such a way that the budget was out of balance; were not studied from the angle of revenue yield; or were considered only in gross. One or more of these conditions formerly prevailed in budgeting. Too often this neglect still prevails altho there has undoubtedly been a great improvement in recent years. And it is not only in the realm of budgeting that this neglect of the receipts or income side exists. Even in such a matter as the auditing of school accounts it is not uncommon to find ever so much attention paid to disbursements with a neglect or slighting of the establishment of true income.

The management of school income embraces the whole area of school receipts. These may be classified as (a) revenue receipts, (b) non-revenue receipts, and (c) other receipts, such as revolving

¹ The Commission acknowledges with thanks the assistance of Arthur W. Schmidt, Associate in Educational Finance, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y., in the preparation of parts of this chapter, particularly the section dealing with income accounting.

fund receipts, advancements, or the like.² Classifications of income now in use are varied as are also the definitions applicable to kinds of income. Classification practice varies from state to state to a certain extent. For the purposes of our treatment we need not be particularly concerned, however, over the matter of classification. Superintendents of schools will have to follow such usage as is prescribed in their states. It does not matter particularly for the purposes of this consideration whether any distinction is made between revenue and non-revenue receipts. Neither is it worthwhile here to be concerned over definitions.³ The useful thing within the possibilities of this chapter is to focus attention upon some of the emphases that seem to be needed, some of the problems involved, and some of the ways of bringing about a better management of school income.

Roughly speaking, school income is made up of the following classes: (a) grants from larger units such as state and federal aid; (b) local taxes; (c) borrowings, either upon short-term loans or issuance of bonds; (d) tuitions from other units or individuals; and (e) miscellaneous sources. Each general class may and should be subdivided into as much detail as there are distinct kinds of income; but such itemization, important for accounting and reporting purposes, is not essential to this discussion. Of the major classes, local taxes cover the largest proportion of income for schools in most districts. For example, in the state of New York in 1936-37 local taxes provided 61 percent of the income, regular grants (state and federal) 36 percent, and all other only 3 percent. United States Office of Education statistics for 1935-36 show 27 percent of total revenue and non-revenue receipts coming from the states and federal government, with 73 percent coming from county and local taxes and other sources. Percentages in the different states will vary widely and great differences will be found among the individual districts. For some districts, particularly in certain states, grants will be negligible and the tax income ratio much higher.

Therefore, if emphasis upon the management of income is to be measured by its size, the major attention should be devoted to the

² See: Engelhardt, Fred, and von Borgersrode, Fred. *Accounting Procedure for School Systems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 130 p. ¶ Fowlkes, John Guy. *A Handbook of Financial Accounting for Schools*. Eau Claire, Wis.: Eau Claire Book and Stationery Co., 1924. 56 p.

³ National Committee on Municipal Accounting. *Municipal Accounting Terminology for State, Municipal, and Other Local Governments*. Chicago: the Committee (850 E. 58th St.). This is a convenient and complete bulletin dealing with terminology and will be found useful.

handling of taxes. This is in reality true. School income derived from grants from larger units, such as the state or federal government, often amounts to a larger proportion of a district's income, particularly if the district is poor and an equalized distributive system exists;⁴ but, at the same time, until this type of income is received there is little that the receiving district can do about it—a situation contrary to that in the case of taxes. With local taxes a great deal of good management in the matter of assessment, levy, and collection will be fruitful prior to the time tax revenue is received into the school district treasury. Of course, after any income reaches the treasury there is an equal concern for the exercise of good management, regardless of source.

It should be said, also, that just because an income class is small is no indication that any laxity in its management is justifiable. All income has an equal claim to good stewardship; and in many of our school districts income leaks of small amounts may mean the difference between the possibility of enriching or not enriching beyond the subsistence level, the educational program of the school—if not, indeed, the bare payment of meager obligations.⁵

In passing, it is important to note that details of procedure in the management of income and the value of different emphases depend to a considerable extent upon the type of administrative unit. Procedures and needed emphases vary somewhat from one type of unit to another. For example, the independent small school district has certain problems of income management not found in town units in New England or in dependent city units. It is also true that in states where intermediate units exist—between the state and the local unit—this larger unit relieves the local school system of some of the functions of income management.

Table M in the Appendix indicates five different types of units and a miscellaneous group. Of these, the independent district constitutes 75 percent of a total of 2300 units recorded. Therefore, it seems that the treatment of a subject like this might well be geared to the independent small school system. Such a treatment will not be of maximum benefit to small school systems in New England or to those where a well-developed county system prevails.

⁴ A study of 500 one-teacher districts, selected at random, in New York in 1935, showed taxes amounting to 41 percent of receipts and state aid 55 percent, with other sources 4 percent.

⁵ See *Research Problems in School Finance* by the Research Staff and Special Consultants of the National Survey of School Finance. Washington, American Council on Education, 1933, for an excellent discussion of the problems for study and attention in the avoidance of revenue leaks. p. 55-64.

Yet the independent system has almost all the problems faced in the management of school income and the purpose of the present chapter is to aim at such a unit. A "shotgun" approach to problems of income management would have to be used if one aimed at this whole broad country—and nothing might be hit.

It ought also to be kept in mind that in the area of business management superintendents regard "personnel trained to keep records," "demands of local, state, and national accounting," and "unwillingness of board to set up budget" as outstanding problems (see the Appendix). This in itself indicates a painfully low level of "readiness, exercise, and effect" as a basis for the present attempt to be helpful with respect to this subject. All respondents to the Commission's inquiry agreed, however, that "adequate financial support" was a prime problem everywhere. Therefore, all should be interested in the improved management of income as one means of conserving existing school support.

Superintendents of small school systems who really wish to become well versed in income management will have to delve much deeper than this yearbook. In doing so they will find readily available several works worth owning and consulting.⁶ It will pay them to follow the excellent pamphlet or bulletin material coming out from time to time. School administrators will also wish to keep in touch with the rapidly expanding output of scientific studies in the area of general public administration.⁷ It ought to be a matter of pride with school administrators that school business administration is as good as it is; but pride alone will not keep it in the forefront of

⁶ In addition to others footnoted or referred to herein, the following will be worth study and reference: Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 1068 p. ¶ Smith, Harry P. *Business Administration of Public Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1929. 432 p. ¶ Alexander, Carter. *How to Locate Educational Information and Data*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 272 p. ¶ De Young, Chris A. *Budgeting in Public Schools*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1936. ¶ U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, National Survey of School Finance. *Research Problems in School Finance*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1933. 164 p. ¶ Moehlman, Arthur B. *Public School Finance*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1927. 508 p. ¶ Morrison, Henry C. *The Management of School Money*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. 522 p. ¶ Morrison, Henry C. *School Revenue*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930. 242 p. ¶ Reeder, Ward G. *The Business Administration of a School System*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1929. 454 p. ¶ Schmidt, Arthur W., and Sears, Wendell M. "The Cooperation of School District Officers." *American School Board Journal* 92: 19-20; February 1936. ¶ Sears, Wendell M. "A Board-of-Education-Business-Efficiency Rating Card." *American School Board Journal* 91: 28-29; December 1935.

⁷ National Committee on Municipal Accounting, 850 E. 58th Street, Chicago, Illinois, has published much good material. In this connection it should be noted that the *Public Administration Clearing House* is one of several autonomous organizations, including Public Administration Service, grouped together and coordinated for the study and improvement of general government and administrative technics. These are now located at 1313 E. 60th Street, Chicago. Informational requests thru the Clearing House will receive attention.

public administration where, as an essential influence, if for no other reason, it ought to be kept. General public administration has made tremendous strides in the past decade and has much to offer school administration—material not written expressly for schools but nevertheless adaptable.

Not uncommonly, the superintendent of schools in the small school system is a young man. He may have just started in an administrative career. He probably has within his "genes" the factors essential to success. His location *now* in a small system may be turned into a great asset. There, on a small scale, if he becomes the master of his art, he may practice the best that is known in administrative procedure. The small system is a golden opportunity.

The Custody of School Money: the Treasury System

Every school system, large or small, requires a treasury. In other words, there is a treasury function to be performed for all school units. Sometimes this function is performed by a general treasury of some general governmental unit, such as the city treasury of the school district. Such utilization of the city treasurer's office in the custody of school funds is to be found both in city school systems which are fiscally dependent and in those which are fiscally independent. In New England the common practice is for the town or city treasurer to perform the treasury function for the schools. In some cases the county or intermediate district unit, thru an independent or general governmental treasury, serves this function. Regardless of organization, the treasury function exists; where there is school income it requires custody.

There is much to commend the use of the general governmental treasury system such as is often found in large cities. The city treasurer's office, it would seem, might very well serve the schools thereby saving some expense and duplication of office. Such an arrangement makes possible to a degree, depending upon size, the concentration of treasury activities into a volume which reduces the unit cost of the function; tends to assure better facilities for the careful handling of moneys and the keeping of accounts; and makes it possible to utilize experienced personnel whereas otherwise part-time personnel would be necessary. These same advantages argue for the establishment of a somewhat centralized treasury to serve a group of small school districts.

At the same time there are a great many small independent school systems wherein the treasury function is an integral part of the responsibility of the local board of education. In such systems the superintendent of schools should be particularly alert to the problem of helping his board dispatch the treasury function. Here it is a critical matter because each such school district in effect operates an independent treasury.

Beach, in his study of the custody of school funds, classified school custodial systems into four types: (1) *the schoolboard treasurer system*, where the treasurer is either a member of the board or a person appointed by it; (2) *the clerk-treasurer system*, where the treasurer of the school system is either the clerk of the board or the superintendent of schools acting as clerk; (3) *the governmental treasurer system* such as referred to above, but with occasional variations, and not infrequently involving the tax collection function; and (4) *the depository system*, where an official of the depository for school moneys serves also as school district treasurer.⁸ Any superintendent interested in following up the problem of the school treasuryship should consult Beach's dissertation and also Linn's study on *Safeguarding School Funds*.⁹

In 1930 Beach found nineteen states or territories using the first type, five using the second, twenty-three using the third, and four using the last, namely, the depository system. The schoolboard treasurer system and the governmental treasurer system were thus found to be most common. Beach concluded, however, with an appropriate recognition that his evaluation was an approximation, that the depository system was the most satisfactory, and that the personal treasurer could safely and economically be dispensed with.¹⁰

This system of custody (the depository system) is followed where the office of treasurer has been abolished. The functions of the treasurer have been transferred to the depository in which school funds are actually deposited. Under this system, school authorities usually require the payment of interest on school fund deposits and the provision for collateral or depository bonds to safeguard these deposits. Banks are usually selected on the basis of bids. Such bids include the rate of interest that will be paid on school fund deposits and the provision made for their safety.

All school receipts are deposited directly in the depository. The depository

⁸ Beach, Fred F. *The Custody of School Funds*. Contributions to Education, No. 577. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. 159 p.

⁹ Linn, Henry H. *Safeguarding School Funds*. Contributions to Education, No. 387. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 187 p.

¹⁰ Beach, Fred F., *op. cit.*, p. 73.

makes a report of these receipts to the accounting officer. In the disbursement of school funds, bills are presented to the schoolboard for audit and approval. A warrant is drawn for each bill authorizing its payment, and the warrant is signed by the president and the clerk of the board. The clerk is the accounting officer of the board and keeps a record of all receipts and disbursements. The warrant is sent directly to the payee. The clerk of the board with complete accounting records serves as a check on the depository.¹¹

The study justifies the conclusion that of all the systems of custody, this system recommends itself most highly. Measured on the scale of each criterion, it ranks highest. The proper use of the system involves the employment of internal check and may include all the other safety devices. It is less expensive than any other system of custody inasmuch as in it the cost of the treasurer's salary and bond is eliminated. With the trained personnel at its disposal the efficient handling of funds is more likely in this system than in the others. The political hazard of an appointed or politically elected treasurer is eliminated.¹²

It seems more or less inevitable that the independent small school system will move toward either the depository system, possibly with modifications, or the governmental treasurer system. Attention, however, should be called to the fact that in some states the law requires the election of a person as treasurer, and thereby eliminates the institutional treasury. To the more conservative it will long seem desirable to have a responsible individual serving as treasurer upon whom can be focused the community knowledge that "Mr. So-and-So" is the custodian of the school funds and who, as an individual, can be called upon and spoken to by the board. Often, the merits of the depository system are in part gained, while retaining the value of individuality, by the election of a responsible banking officer of the board's depository bank as school district treasurer.

More important as a practical or actionable matter than the system of custodianship, depending as it does so much on state law, and of more importance in the improvement of custodial practice are the evolved principles or requisites of good custodianship. These can be but briefly enumerated as they are commonly recognized by the better practices and by authorities who have dealt with the problem.

(1) The creation of liabilities and their cancellation thru disbursement of money are functions which should be separately held and exercised. Neither the purchasing officer nor the accounting officer of the board should be the treasurer. The latter should be an officer independent of other functions and responsible to the order of the board of education. By no means should any superintendent of

¹¹ Beach, Fred F., *op. cit.*, p. 11.

¹² Beach, Fred F., *op. cit.*, p. 69.

TREASURER'S REPORT
TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

For the month beginning 19... and ending 19...

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand beginning this month\$

Received this month from

Taxes \$

State aid

Other sources _____

Total receipts \$ _____

Receipts and balances \$ _____

DISBURSEMENTS

Total disbursements check No. to check No. .. \$

Balance on hand at end of month _____

Total \$ _____

RECONCILIATION WITH BANK STATEMENT

Balance as shown by bank statement \$ _____

Checks outstanding

Number	Amount
.....	\$.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Total checks outstanding\$_____

Balance on hand as shown
by records\$_____

Total \$ _____

(Signed)
(Treasurer)

FIGURE XLVI.—SCHOOL DISTRICT TREASURER'S REPORT

schools be the treasurer or exercise the disbursement function of the school system. Conversely the treasurer is not to be the school accounting officer except in the matter of a simple record of income and outgo by funds.

(2) The function of the treasurer is to receive school moneys, to exercise proper custody over them, to deposit them as authorized, to disburse them upon written order of the board of education, and to report their status to the board. He does not properly control the direction of school expenditure. He receives, keeps, disburses on official order, and reports. His is not a difficult job but a highly responsible one.

(3) The board of education should require separately rendered reports, at least monthly, from the accounting officer and the treasurer and should reconcile these. These few words all mean something important: reporting separately, at least monthly, and board reconciliation. The superintendent should also reconcile. Reports should be entered verbatim in the book of minutes. The accompanying form (Figure XLVI) is a generally satisfactory one for the treasurer's report.¹³

(4) Prenumbered receipts in triplicate should be issued by the treasurer for all moneys received: one copy to the debtor, one to the accounting officer, and one retained. Figure XLVII illustrates a generally satisfactory receipt document.

(5) No treasury system will work without vigilance; this is a

¹³ New York State Education Department, Finance Division. *School Accounting Documents for the Guidance of Boards of Education*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1094. Albany: the Department, 1936. 38 p. In succeeding pages frequent use is made of other forms taken from this source and reproduced without further reference. These forms are used simply as illustrations and in no way in the sense of particular advocacy by the Commission. The demands of varying local conditions and varying state laws are fully recognized.

BOARD OF EDUCATION SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. N. Y.	TREASURER'S RECEIPT NO. 23
RECEIVED FROM \$	
..... DOLLARS	
FOR	
Bill No.	
Issued in triplicate: 1 copy to Debtor 1 copy to Clerk 1 copy to Treasurer <i>Treasurer, School District No.</i>

FIGURE XLVII.—SCHOOL DISTRICT TREASURER'S RECEIPT

responsibility of the board but one in the exercise of which the superintendent may be of great aid. Periodic external and independent audits, preferably annually, are necessary and in the long run are an economy. But the frequent observational or checking type of informal audit both by superintendent and board is of much value; for this the annual audit is not a substitute. The superintendent thru statistical studies of income trends can contribute much of value. The simple device of periodically arriving at and recording income estimates and of checking the realization of income against these estimates is a form of very valuable income accounting.

(6) The school treasurer must be bonded, and in good practice the day of the personal bondsman, too often legal, is past. The corporate surety bond is the most desirable form of protection. In general practice it is the function of the board of education to determine the size of the bond. What the coverage should be depends upon the timing of income yield to the treasury and other factors. In some school districts peak income yields often cause the total amount of money received by the treasury to run very high during certain periods. Practices and follow-up with respect to conveying moneys into the depository affect bonding coverages. It is difficult to advise as to amounts of coverage within a state, more so within the entire country. It might be said that the amount of coverage can be determined only empirically. It may be set at an amount equal to the largest amount in the hands of the treasurer at one time; or it may be set at some fixed percent of the total authorized expenditure of the district, for example, 25 percent.

The Depository

The determination of the banking depository for school moneys is generally the function of the board of education. State laws, differing widely, quite generally regulate practice in this respect. No funds should be deposited in other than the official depository. Record of depository designation should be recorded in the minutes of the board. In the case of board selection of depository the treasurer and his sureties are not liable for loss of funds in the event of bank failure, since the choice is taken out of the treasurer's hands and there is no unfaithfulness on his part.¹⁴

¹⁴ Linn, Henry H., *op. cit.*, p. 92.

Until recently it was generally held that good practice required school district funds to be protected by depository bond or by some other form of security. Beach mentioned four ways: (1) the use of good collateral assigned by the bank, (2) the corporate depository bond, (3) the treasurer's bond, and (4) the declaration of the state as a preferred creditor.¹⁵ The third suggestion can be ruled out as a depository safeguard. It is increasingly considered poor governmental policy to rely upon the fourth type of safeguard. Probably the government, least of all depositors, should demand preferential treatment. This line of reasoning has apparently had its influence, especially in recent years, upon the whole problem of depository safeguards for public funds and especially upon the procurement of such safeguards thru the use of collateral assigned by banks as surety. It will be seen that the assignment of such collateral to a school system, for example, weakens the security of private depositors in the bank.

By the process of elimination, therefore, we come to the method of the corporate depository bond. Linn calls attention to certain advantages of these bonds:

- (1) Since the bonding companies make careful examination of depositories before covering deposits, the mere fact that a bond is furnished gives a high degree of assurance that the bank is safe.
- (2) Depository bonds are more convenient than collateral.
- (3) They are preferable to the private depositor, as noted above.

But Linn also calls attention to the fact that depository bonds are very expensive.¹⁶ Furthermore, it is to be noted that for small school districts, the insistence upon a depository bond would in practice often rule out the possibility of selecting a depository within the locality. There have been times, however, when it would have been desirable to have forced school districts and other local governments to concentrate public deposits in the stronger, tho non-local, urban banks. Where the statutes prescribe that depositories furnish security, Linn states that it is assumed the banks will pay the cost.¹⁷ This results in lowering whatever rate of interest might otherwise be secured on public deposits.

During recent years the problem of depository safeguards has

¹⁵ Beach, Fred F., *op. cit.*, p. 30. ¶ See also Linn, Henry H., *op. cit.*, p. 104, for a more detailed discussion.

¹⁶ Linn, Henry H., *op. cit.*, p. 107-109.

¹⁷ Linn, Henry H., *op. cit.*, p. 111.

encountered new conditions which have greatly altered practice. The federal depository insurance law has rendered less necessary the previously advisable safeguards. Furthermore, national banks are now prevented by federal statute from furnishing depositor security unless state laws specifically authorize it. In New York State, for example, no authority now exists under which a board of education may require a bank to furnish security. Banks have also become more stable than heretofore. The expectation of interest on public deposits has decreased or vanished. At the same time the feeling has grown that public deposits should not be accorded greater protection than private deposits. All in all, therefore, it would seem that the board of education should exercise, first, all possible care in the selection of a depository within the scope allowed by the sometimes too narrow state laws and, where possible, even to utilize more than one depository. So far as practicable, tax collection should be made in more frequent installments and state aid paid more frequently and consequently in smaller amounts, leveling out the peaks of income yield. Increasingly it seems that safeguards will have to rest largely upon these measures, coupled with alertness, without the expectation of special depository security.

Income Accounting

Public school accounting has probably lagged more in the area of income accounting than anywhere else. This has been due partly to the fact that much of the income of school districts is derived from one or two rather large sources over which the schoolboard may have relatively little administrative control. Certainly there is very little that the board of education can do about state or federal aid as far as collecting it is concerned. And, in many states, boards of education have little responsibility for the collection of taxes. Whether the board of education exercises little or much administrative control over income, it should, nevertheless, have its accounting for income tuned up to a point where at least it may have timely information.

Accounting control may be achieved in two basic ways: either by the use of a general ledger with the proper accounts and monthly balance sheets and reports, or thru the avenue of periodic statistical reports which will reveal the status of each income account or source.

The accounts needed in a general ledger for controlling income are the following:

(1) *Cash*—Cash consists of all funds, whether represented by savings accounts, certificates of deposits, or checking accounts. In a double entry system cash is debited with the moneys received from all sources, and is credited with the checks used for all purposes. The debit balance at any time represents the amount of cash on hand.

(2) *Taxes receivable current year*—In a double entry system, this account is debited with taxes assessed or billed during the current year, and is credited with collections, cancellations, and abatements. The debit balance at any time represents the amount of taxes levied but not collected.

(3) *Taxes receivable prior year*—This account is debited at the beginning of each fiscal year with the balance of the uncollected taxes billed and assessed in previous fiscal years. It is credited with collections or cancellations. The debit balance at any time represents the amount of taxes levied in previous years, but not collected or written off.

(4) *Allowance for uncollectible taxes*—This is an offset account for (2) and (3) above. Taxes receivable which it is estimated will not be collected are credited at the beginning of the year and periodically to this account. Abatements and cancellations of taxes, formally made, eliminate "taxes receivable" and, by the same token, "taxes uncollectible"; hence abatements and cancellations of prior years' taxes are debited. Therefore, credit balance represents the estimated amount of taxes which will not be collected and which have not been formally abated or cancelled—that is, written off.

(5) *Miscellaneous accounts receivable*—This account is debited with amounts receivable and credited with collections and cancellations. The debit balance represents the amount of miscellaneous income still to be collected. As the name implies this account is used primarily for miscellaneous collections. As here considered, state aid, federal aid, and tuition, for example, will be treated as "miscellaneous." This may be considered undesirable in view of the magnitude of state aid and sometimes of tuition; and, if so, a separate account may be set up for any of these items.

(6) *Short-term loans payable*—This account is credited with the amounts borrowed on short-term loans and debited when the loans are paid. The credit balance represents the amount that is still to be paid.

The general ledger accounts should be summarized monthly on a balance sheet similar to the one shown in Figure XLVIII.

From the standpoint of income management the balance sheet is valuable in the following respects.

- (1) The amount of cash on hand is immediately apparent.
- (2) The amount of taxes still to be received after making allowances for collectibles is readily seen.
- (3) A comparison of this balance sheet with prior ones will indicate the rate of tax collection.

School District #15
General Fund Balance Sheet
January 31, 1938

Assets

Cash		\$ 1,000.00	
Taxes Receivable Current Year		10,000.00	
Taxes Receivable Prior Year	\$800.00		
Allowance for Uncollectable Taxes	<u>80.00</u>	720.00	
Miscellaneous Accounts Receivable		<u>2,000.00</u>	
			\$13,720.00

Less Liabilities, Reserves and Appropriation Balances

Accounts Payable		1,000.00	
Short Term Loans Payable		4,000.00	
Encumbrance Obligations		500.00	
Appropriations	\$13,500.00		
Less:			
Expenditures	\$5,200.00		
Encumbrance Obligations	<u>500.00</u>	5,700.00	
Unexpended Balances of Appropriations		<u>7,800.00</u>	
Total Liabilities, Reserves and Appropriations			\$13,300.00
Unappropriated Surplus			420.00

FIGURE XLVIII.—GENERAL FUND BALANCE SHEET

- (4) Miscellaneous accounts receivable, often overlooked, are clearly shown, should call attention to the need for followup, and can be made more detailed if desired.
- (5) The amount of short-term borrowing to finance the program is definitely shown.

If it is not desired to maintain a general ledger, particularly in a very small system, a few simple reports or statements will greatly facilitate income management. In any sizable independent school system the general ledger should be considered a necessity. Some sample forms are illustrated in Figures XLIX, L, LI, and LII.¹⁸

The first of these statements (Figure XLIX) has for its purpose the recording of essential information concerning the status of each of the several income accounts. The second (Figure L) is for summarizing monthly expenditures, and the third (Figure LI) combines the first two, to furnish a basis for coordinating income receipts and expenditures, and in case revenue cannot be controlled to the necessary extent to provide the funds to meet expenditures, this statement furnishes a good basis for a short-term borrowing program. The last statement (Figure LII) represents a record of short-term borrowings, and serves as a reminder that the loans must be repaid. The careful use of statements such as these should facilitate planned income and expenditure management.

Whether control of income is achieved thru accounting procedures or by means of statistical statements makes little difference. It is important that one or the other method be followed constantly and regularly. To do so will not only improve fiscal administration but it will also be found to be a means of greatly improving budgetary planning, especially from the school income angle. Moreover, it will tend to insure the nearer to 100 percent realization of potential income.

In order that the records may be accurate, and to insure procedures which will safeguard against losses in income, it is necessary to use a few simple forms. For protecting tax revenues, most states have established tax rolls and tax receipt forms which make it reasonably easy to ascertain the exact amount the tax collector has taken in. State aid is usually paid directly into the district treasury, according to procedures established by the state, necessitating no

¹⁸ Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 325, 327.

School District #136									
Monthly Statement of Income									
Month ^{a/} Item ^{b/}	January		February		November		December		
	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	
Taxes									
State Aid									
Tuition									
Other Sources									
Total									
a/ Monthly designation depends on local fiscal year. b/ Items depend on local sources.									

FIGURE XLIX

School District #16									
Monthly Statement of Current Expenditures									
Month ^{a/} Item ^{b/}	January		February		November		December		
	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	
Salaries and Wages									
Supplies									
Textbooks									
Sinking Fund									
Loan and Interest									
Fixed Charges									
Other Expenditures									
Total									
a/ Monthly designation depends on local fiscal year. b/ Items depend on local sources.									

Source: Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. Public School Business Administration. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.
p. 325-26.

FIGURE L

School District #16					
Comparative Analysis of Monthly Cash Needs					
Item	January 19		February 19		Remarks
	Esti- mated	Actual	Esti- mated	Actual	
Cash on hand begin- ning of month					
Income during month					
Expenditures for month					
Balance					
Loans required					

FIGURE LI

School District #16						
Analysis of Borrowing Program						
Item		January	February	November	December	Remarks
Loans outstand- ing at beginning of month	A					
	B					
Interest Due	A					
	B					
Payments to be made	A					
	B					
Additional Loans	A					
	B					
A Estimated B Actual						

Source: Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. Public School Business Administration. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 326-27.

FIGURE LII

BILL FOR COLLECTION

Pay to..... Treasurer of District No.....

Date.....

One copy to Debtor
One copy to Clerk
One copy to Treasurer

Signed _____
(Executive Officer)

[434]

receipt forms. In the field of miscellaneous local sources of income, usually no such safeguarding procedures and devices are established. To fill the gap in these areas, boards of education should require the use of a simple form of billing to be used for tuition or other miscellaneous income (see Figure LIII).

Copies of these bills should be filed in the accounting office where a record may be made of all such accounts receivable. As payments are made into the treasury, a receipt should be issued, a copy of which should also be filed with the accounting office. In this way, the accounting officer may set up records for recording the amounts which should be received and also the amounts actually received. The difference would represent the amounts still to be collected.

The Management of Tax Income

In Chapter XIV of this yearbook, the importance of some revision and modernization of tax systems was stressed. Much of the emphasis at that point had to do with the management of tax income, altho the subject was being discussed there from another angle. Therefore, attempts will be made here to avoid duplication and shorten the otherwise necessary treatment.

Tax income is like any other income after it is deposited in the treasury of the school system. Therefore, this is not the particular concern at this point. It is, rather, the stage prior to the receipt of tax income to which attention is here invited.

Local tax income consists mostly of the proceeds of the tax on real property, with some declining increments in some states from personal property. The basis of locally taxable property varies greatly from state to state. In some states the general property tax includes both real and personal property. In New York, for example, the title of the tax is "general property"; but the basis of the tax is "real property including special franchises." In that state the general property tax has not included the taxation of personal property since 1933.¹⁹ The measure of the tax is the value of property; its rate is fixed locally to meet budget requirements; assessment of property is by local assessors except for special franchises which are valued by the state tax commission; the levy for schools is by the school-

¹⁹ *New York State Tax Bulletin* 21: 9; March 1937.

board except in some cities; the proceeds are entirely for local purposes.²⁰

In the assessment of property for local tax purposes it is a common practice for the school system to utilize the assessment made by another governmental jurisdiction. Often, therefore, the only thing left for the local school system to do is to accept such assessment as the basis of levy. Tax authorities generally recognize the importance of full value assessments based upon the price that property would bring at voluntary sale. The stability and meaningfulness of the local property tax for school purposes will be enhanced by the use of true or actual values and to this end the local superintendent should work as a leader in his community. Indeed, it occasionally happens that full valuation becomes a real income boon to localities thru use by the state or other larger jurisdiction valuation as a basis of returning centrally collected revenue to local units. Contrariwise, sometimes state tax levies are prorated on the basis of valuations. Distributions on valuation bases, solely, are not good finance; but it is nevertheless important that the local school authorities keep alert to all uses of property valuations as one phase of their work in relation to income.

The National Tax Association as a means of improving assessment has advocated: (a) assessment districts large enough to justify employment of at least one permanent salaried assessor; (b) well-equipped offices, part-time assistants and clerks; (c) the appointment subject to removal, rather than the election, of assessors; and (d) the provision of a permanent state tax commission which, among other things, would make original assessments of all property that has a statewide character, would equalize property assessments, and have directive and supervisory power over local assessment.²¹ This report may to good advantage be studied further by superintendents of schools.

Tax Levy

The process of levying a tax requires first the determination of the amount of revenue to be collected from that source. Figure LIV illustrates a sample budgetary recapitulation which, if observed step by step, is a way of accurately arriving at the amount to be raised

²⁰ Chart prepared by New York State Tax Commission, as of October 1, 1937, covering all taxes in the state.

²¹ National Tax Association. *Second Report on a Plan of a Model System of State and Local Taxation*. Columbia, S. C.: the Association (Sec.: W. G. Query, State Office Bldg.), 1933. 68 p.

Schedule A
EXPENDITURES

Budget Items	Budget 1937-38	Budget 1938-39
General control	\$ _____	\$ _____
Instructional service	_____	_____
Operation of plant	_____	_____
Maintenance of plant	_____	_____
Auxiliary agencies	_____	_____
Fixed charges	_____	_____
<hr/>		
Total current expenses	\$ _____	\$ _____
Debt service	_____	_____
Capital outlay	_____	_____
<hr/>		
Total expenditures	\$ _____	\$ _____
Balance expected to be on hand July 1, 1939, for use during school year 1939-40	_____	_____
<hr/>		
(a) Total expenditures and balance	\$ _____	\$ _____
<hr/>		

Budget Resolution:

(Signed) _____
Chairman of Annual Meeting

Ayes _____

Noes _____

Clerk

Schedule B
RECEIPTS AS ESTIMATED BY BOARD OF EDUCATION

Balance on hand July 1, 1938	\$ _____	(a) Total expenditure and balance	\$ _____
Unpaid taxes (previous year)	_____	(b) Less receipts other than tax on property	_____
State and Federal Aid	_____		
All other receipts (except amount to be raised by taxes)	_____	(c) Amount to be raised by tax ...	\$ _____
<hr/>			
(b) Total receipts other than tax on property	\$ _____		
(c) Amount to be raised by tax	_____		
<hr/>			
Total receipts	\$ _____		
<hr/>			

FIGURE LIV.—SCHOOL DISTRICT BUDGET RECAPITULATION

by tax in a given school system. Unfortunately, either because of statutory requirements or otherwise, governing bodies do not include in their calculations an allowance for taxes which will not be collected when needed, or which may never be collected. Where permitted by state law, boards of education should on the basis of past experience make a reasonable allowance for such contingencies, so that the actual income shall equal the amount needed to meet budgetary requirements. After the budget has been approved and the amount to be raised by tax determined, it is a simple matter to find by mathematical computation the tax rate which will be required. It is a good practice for the governing body of the school district to adopt a tax resolution including a direction to the tax collector to proceed to collect the amount of taxes specified.

Tax Collection

In the area of tax collection local boards of education have more administrative responsibility than in the other phases. In many states, school taxes are collected separately, and oftentimes by a separate school tax collector. A few suggestions may be made to improve these practices.

(1) The tax collector should be appointed rather than elected. In this way he can be selected for his efficiency rather than for his vote-getting ability. Too often the tax collector is elected because of his easy-going qualities or physical or economic handicaps which arouse the sympathy of the voters. In either case, these qualities detract from, rather than increase, his ability as a tax collector.

(2) The tax collector should be paid a salary rather than fees. The fee system encourages laxity in tax collection because usually, the longer the taxes remain unpaid, the higher the tax collector's fee.

(3) The tax collector should be required to perform his duties impartially and promptly. It is the opinion of tax authorities that the most common cause of tax delinquency is the laxity on the part of the tax collector and a failure to enforce reasonable penalties for delinquency. During the recent depression many cities that found themselves in serious financial conditions because of the increased amount of tax delinquency, began to seriously enforce existing legal penalties for non-payment of taxes, with the result that delinquency was greatly reduced, in some cases to levels even below those prevailing during boom time. The lax administration of penalties seems

to exercise a demoralizing effect upon all taxpayers. The honest and responsible property owners, who make sacrifices and pay their taxes when due, are seriously penalized for their punctuality when less conscientious taxpayers go unpunished for undue delay or complete failure to pay their fair share, and naturally tend to become lax themselves.

The National Survey of School Finance in its *Research Problems in School Finance* in 1933 listed a series of questions bearing upon tax collection.²² Pertinent questions, with some slight modifications therein, are reproduced below with the suggestion that the superintendent of every small school system find the answer to each question for his own system. Only such questions are included as have a distinctly local possibility of answer. It is suggested that in this exercise the superintendent will develop information of definite importance to the management of tax income in the area of tax collection.

(1) What are the laws applicable to your school system pertaining to tax delinquency, with particular reference to school support? For example, for how many months or years may taxes be delinquent? What are the penalties, if any, for tax delinquency? What are the effects of different types of laws on the amount of tax delinquency? What changes, if any, need to be made in the laws?

(2) What is the present amount and the trend of delinquent school taxes in your school system and in neighboring systems in the state? Why is there more tax delinquency in certain districts than in others? What steps might be taken to reduce such delinquency?

(3) What is the specific effect of tax delinquency upon the school program in your system? How are the problems created by tax delinquency being met in your district and how should they be met?

(4) What means are used to collect delinquent school taxes in your district? For example, who collects such taxes? What is the cost of the collection under any plan of collection used in your district? What economies are possible? To what degree, if any, do delinquent school taxes, together with penalties, fail to come into the school treasury when they are paid? What steps should be taken to assure that they will come into the school treasury?

The Superintendent's Tax Record

Among the many ways which an ingenious superintendent will find to improve the management of tax income in its pre-receipt state, possibly his most fruitful activity as a basis for future followup will be the establishment of an adequate tax record. Such a tax record may be brief and simple or it may be extended to such lengths and

²² U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, National Survey of School Finance. *Research Problems in School Finance*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1933. p. 57.

SUPERINTENDENT'S TAX RECORD 2

SUPERVISORY DISTRICT NO.		DISTRICT NO.		
COUNTY		TOWN OF		
YEAR OF LEVY	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	1940-41
	DATE	AMOUNT	DATE	AMOUNT
TAX LEVY		\$		\$
COLLECTED BY DIST.				
UNCOLLECTED		\$		\$
RETURNED TO COUNTY TREASURER		\$		\$
PAID BY COUNTY TREASURER				
PAID BY COUNTY TREASURER				
PAID BY COUNTY TREASURER				
PAID BY COUNTY TREASURER				
BALANCE		\$		\$
REMARKS:				
1937-38				
1938-39				
1939-40				
1940-41				

2/ In New York State delinquent taxes are returned to county and paid by county. In other states a different arrangement might prevail. The record should be modified accordingly.

FIGURE LV.—SUPERINTENDENT'S TAX RECORD

complexity as the superintendent and his office can work. The form reproduced (Figure LV) is a very simple one applicable to union, county, or district superintendents. One card record is for use in each separate district or unit.

There is no virtue in a record simply for the sake of keeping it; its virtue lies in its use. Records make it possible for us to obtain cogent information bearing upon tax income. Such information need not necessarily be continuously assembled. Certain types of data may be assembled for use in different years. The point is this: Little headway will be made with the improvement of assessment or collection of taxes unless specific and informed emphasis is placed upon removing shortcomings in procedure and leaks in yield. The superintendent who really goes after this matter and lays proposals for improvement clearly before his board, seeking also their help, counsel, and action, will improve income yield—possibly enough to enable his schools to offer program elements now denied.

Internal Funds and Student Organization Funds

Management of school income cannot neglect the area of internal school funds and student organization funds, sometimes referred to as extra-classroom activity funds.

As examples of internal funds may be mentioned cafeteria funds, locker funds, and textbook funds. Thru school activities, often centered in individual school plants, these funds may represent significant amounts of school income. They are in truth official in nature and represent a definite responsibility upon the part of the board of education. Furthermore, if loosely managed or unmanaged, they are the seat of an unbusinesslike reputation for school systems. It is incumbent that local school systems, if state systems do not lead the way, survey the extent and nature of these funds and set up simple but effective systems for their control. As a type of system outlined in one state, reference is made to the treatment of revolving accounts in Iowa.²³

Closely allied to the internal type of official funds are those of student organizations. Student organizations, embracing one or more activities and generally involving dues or receipts of one kind or another, are growing rapidly in the schools of all states. The need

²³ Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. *Management of Revolving Accounts*. Accounting Circular No. 9. Des Moines: the Department, 1938. 14 p. (Mimeo.)

for systematizing the management of these funds arises not from the concern of a school treasury for an official revenue yield, but from the concern of the school system for the good management of all phases of its program. A particular obligation also exists to utilize these activities for the maximum education of the students themselves. Student organizations are held to be distinctly educative thru their activities. It is of importance that such educative values reach to the area of good fiscal management and stewardship.

The school system has an obligation, it would seem, to offer at least a system of management for student funds and to exercise certain fiscal supervision and service, with a type of control—control not so much over activity and direction as over an orderly process. To this end central bookkeeping and comptrollership for student funds and central depositories under persons responsible to the superintendent or board of education would seem to be prescribed.²⁴

Capital Funds

One of the very important problems that has to be met in local school districts is the extension or replacement of plant. This is ordinarily referred to in a fiscal way as the problem of capital outlay. In large cities it is more or less a continuous problem; but in the small school system capital outlay is an extraordinary undertaking. Large school systems develop the experience which comes from continuous work upon capital projects; they amass and sift plans, specifications, administrative procedures, and financial methods with presumably increasing efficiency; and they benefit by the continuity of the function and the technical inheritance. Small school systems lack this advantage due to infrequency of building. Many small school systems erect a new school building only once in two to four generations. For each undertaking, therefore, there is often within the community no experience to draw upon. This lack would be very serious were it not for the availability of professional help from a larger jurisdiction and the technical, architectural, legal, and financial skill that can be employed.

Not the least serious angle in this problem is that having to do with capital funding and the control of capital income and outlay. In Chapter XVI of this yearbook a section has been devoted to

²⁴ The New York State Department of Education in cooperation with a committee appointed for the purpose has recently published a circular of information dealing with this subject, entitled *The Safeguarding, Accounting and Auditing of Extra-Classroom Activity Funds*. Finance Bulletin 2. Albany: the University of the State of New York Press, 1938.

capital outlay and at that point much that relates to the fiscal aspect of plant extension and replacement, particularly bond issues, was considered. At this point there can be only a very limited discussion of capital income and for the purpose the points to be stressed may best be enumerated:

(1) In the small school system borrowing is considered necessary as a means of funding capital outlay. Except for very small projects, or in a very favored community financially there is no use of talking about any other means of funding. The general method is thru the bond issue.

(2) Where building need exists, but not so stringently that a few years, sooner or later, are vital, the time to build is when there can be achieved the most favorable combination of bonding costs and construction costs. Some times are more favorable than others. Thinking of economical management of income, a board can within a few years' span, if it studies its problem and has its construction program ready to move, find times when it may accept bonding income at a saving over other times and not lose this saving by an offsetting higher cost of construction. The inexorable fact that this is seldom attempted and less seldom done, is no reason why it should not be essayed. Not uncommonly, the history of capital outlay is the reverse.²⁵

Along this line, attention should be called to the possibility of issuing short-term certificates of indebtedness, when a bond issue has been authorized, with the obligation to sell bonds within a specified time when prices are more favorable. This has been worked very advantageously in some known cases.

(3) The establishment of financial reserves looking toward the financing of capital programs has less to offer than there is against it. Ketler, who studied this problem intensively, concluded that the establishment of building reserves was "not cheaper for the taxpayer," and that there was a liability of loss thru mismanagement or dishonesty. Ketler found some advantage in the preservation of the district's borrowing power and the discouragement of extravagance; but he also found that while waiting for reserve accumulation there may be a serious delay in needed construction.²⁶

²⁵ A study of the history of capital outlay will, it is believed, show little positive relationship between extensive building and a most favorable combination of bond issuance and construction prices.

²⁶ Ketler, Frank C. *Reserve Funds in Public School Finance*. Contributions to Education, No. 456. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. 77 p.

Much of the experience that has led to the abandonment of sinking fund bonds is applicable to the avoidance of reserves.

Essex, while not advocating and not studying the problem of reserves, studied bonding versus "pay-as-you-go," and pointed out something fundamental when he advocated further research to determine the value of the money to the taxpayer with a view to knowing "whether or not it is better to leave the money with the taxpayer over a period of years and borrow as a community, or to take the taxpayers' money and avoid community borrowing."²⁷

Cowen followed up this subject and found some immediate economic advantage with the reserve. "He pointed out that the advantage in terms of tax paid is in favor of the reserve fund, but that pay-as-you-go (impossible to most small communities as is reserves) leaves the money with the taxpayer until needed. The study is a good one, but further emphasis on the danger of loss or misappropriation of reserve funds would be desirable."²⁸ Finally and conclusively for the small school system in some states, building reserves are out of the question because they are not legal.

(4) When bonds are sold and a capital income received, it is important immediately to establish a capital or building fund. It is considered important to keep the building fund separate from the general fund and even to go to the extent of opening a new banking account. Where convenient and safe it is sometimes advisable to open the new bank account in another depository from that used by the general fund. Since the bond income will be somewhat slowly utilized it should be possible to enhance it slightly by bank interest, tho never by other investment. A separate set of books should be opened including a separate general ledger. All the safeguards thrown around general fund income, as elsewhere described in that connection, should be utilized to safeguard capital income. In fact since the size of this capital income will often be greater than several years of general income, and since experience with capital project financing is less, the board of education and the superintendent should be very cautious in their management.

²⁷ Essex, Don L. *Bonding Versus Pay-as-You-Go in the Financing of School Buildings*. Contributions to Education, No. 496. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. 101 p. Quotes from *Review of Educational Research*, "Finance and Business Administration," for April 1935, p. 141.

²⁸ Cowen, Philip A. "Why School Districts Should Avoid Long Term Bond Issues." *Nation's Schools* 14: 56-58; July 1934. Quotes from *Review of Educational Research*, "Finance and Business Administration," for April 1935, p. 141. Parentheses, the writer's.

Other Borrowing

In the introduction to this chapter, among the major classes of income referred to was that which comes from borrowing. In the previous section "borrowed income" might just as well have been the topic, because bonding is simply borrowing. At this point, therefore, there are a few suggestions and comments that ought to be made.

Aside from the borrowing that a small school system finds necessary in order to finance a building program, one of the objectives that ought to permeate the entire management of income is the avoidance of debt. Income for current financing, derived thru the creation of debt, is not educationally-dynamic income; it is educationally-regressive because it has to be paid back with interest. Whatever goes out in interest is taken from the sum total allowed for the support of schools and yet it in no way supports an educational program. And, not the least of the dangers from current borrowing is that it leads to extravagance, the entering upon ill-planned program elements, and eventually a further damage to the whole educational program because of an inability to repay short-term loans when due. So far as possible, therefore, every effort should be made thru good income management and thru good finance planning to render current borrowing unnecessary.

As one means of avoiding short-term debt a better timing of income and outgo will be productive. Careful budgeting will be of great value. The terminal costs of proposed new elements in the educational program can be projected much better than is the current practice. On the basis of such projection it is often found possible and wise to adopt new elements by units or installments.

It is difficult to time income so that it will always come when school districts want it; likewise, to time outgo by making expenditures when the income is available. Historically, those who levy taxes are supposed to have sought for a collection time when money for taxes is plentiful; thus the common tax collection period has been after the autumn harvest. But even so, there has unquestionably been little consideration of tax period adjustments in harmony with the income requirements of government. The growing plan of installment tax payments may possibly help some eventually in this matter of income timing; but as yet the objective in this movement has been to ease the burden of the taxpayer.

The payments of state aids could with greater facility be made

to coincide more nearly than is often the case with the need of local income. Where state aid bulks relatively large in income, annual or semi-annual payments are not frequent enough. They throw too heavy increments in local treasuries at certain times, and they are too often made with little regard to the needs of income timing. It is not infrequent that considerable sums have to be borrowed in anticipation of state aid payments in order to meet local payrolls and schedules. The interest cost on this borrowing is great. The fact that state aid is nearly always a reimbursement produces a lag in the timing of income yield, particularly in newly formed districts and thereby has a tendency to force borrowing.

So far as the small school system finds it necessary and providing it is legal in a given state, there is much to be said for the use of the balance carried over from one fiscal year to another as a means of avoiding short-term borrowing. Ketler called this the use of the "interim reserve"²⁹ and, as Calvin Coolidge said of the minister who preached on sin, "he was against it." In the experience of many, the dangers from loan financing are such that the still mooted economics of the problem may to advantage be slightly flouted by the use of *reasonable balances* solely for the purpose of financing a new year's budget. Such balances should never be license to spend outside or beyond the budget and the amount of balance necessary for funding until other income yields accrue should be carefully and conservatively determined. Furthermore, it should be noted that state laws in this connection may render illegal the practice of carrying over balances from a previous fiscal year.

Most state laws give boards of education the power to borrow for one purpose or another. Some states restrict this to the power to borrow in anticipation of taxes levied or in anticipation of the payment of state aid. Occasionally there is too much leeway allowed as to repayment. When current financing thru short-term loans is made possible it ought to be required that the first regular income yield from the source which is security for the loan shall be used to liquidate the indebtedness. To be sure, borrowing is sometimes necessary. It ought to be kept distinctly at a minimum as a means of funding because of its dangers and because it is debt-incurring which is a drag upon the support of education. Borrowing at best is not true school income. It must never be a substitute for the good management of school income.

²⁹ Ketler, Frank C., *op. cit.*, p. 7-22.

Conclusion

At the close of these four chapters on finance which have perforce dealt with seemingly prosaic tasks, what may one strike as the concluding note of outstanding moment? Let us not think that these foregoing emphases signify the primacy of finance. The spirit of education is closer to the learning process. Financing processes are still externa. Finance is a *means* to an end, not in itself the end.

But it is not unimportant, unchallenging, to deal with *means*. In so great a cause, finance, as *means*, takes on a spirit: "Education is a unique function in American democracy."

That a function, so fraught with import for a people dedicated to the democratic way of life, requires a unique place and charter in the governmental scheme of things, impresses itself indelibly upon those who with purpose study the role of education and seek the strongest functional organization for its development. Under the auspices of the Educational Policies Commission,³⁰ the mind and pen of a historian, and later of an educational statesman, have driven home to the presentday molders of American governmental forms the essential separateness of the educational function. Historically, logically, practically, they have expounded the uniqueness of education as a function of organized society. They have established beyond peradventure the imperativeness of fiscal and administrative independence of local boards of education—complimented by a maximum consideration of the cooperative requirements of inter-governmental relationships. The cogency of these reports leaves no doubt that education requires an independent structure harmonious with its function.

This unique function and its organizational counterpart challenge administrators and boards of education in the local school systems thruout the length and breadth of America. The small school system which looms so large in our galaxy will wish to accept the challenge and will wish to demonstrate that it, as the direct agency of the people, set apart by the state for education, is equal to the task. To assist it in so doing is the *raison d'être* of this presentation of principle and procedure which is aimed to yield a strengthened funding and a more efficient and prudential business management.

³⁰ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1937. p. 101-29. ¶ Also, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 48.

APPENDIX

STATUS AND PROBLEMS OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS IN SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

THE YEARBOOK COMMISSION selected the population group 2500-5000 population as the center of the present survey. However, inquiry forms were sent to about 5000 school executives in towns under 2500 in population¹ and to the 400 superintendents in the 5000-10,000 group listed in the *Educational Directory*. A total of 7000 blanks were mailed, of which number 2305 were returned complete enough to be tabulated. In other words, about one-third of the chief executives of small town and village school systems are represented in these tabulations. The distribution of the replies by community size and geographical areas² is shown in Table A.

Status of the Superintendent

In an effort to define the position, the types of persons now employed, and the conditions of employment, a number of specific questions were asked as to official title, age, tenure, contract, status, and salary.

What is the usual title of the chief executive?—Table B shows 73 percent of the total group reporting that “superintendent of schools” was the official title. Generally speaking, this title is most commonly applied in the larger communities. The second most frequently reported title is that of “supervising principal,” altho in the towns above 7500 in population “district superintendent” is second in preference.

Part of the foregoing difference between the second and third most popular titles is explained by the geographical distribution. Space does not permit the inclusion in this book of the geographical tables.³ From these tabulations we find that the title “supervising principal” is preferred in the Eastern area but scarcely reported at

¹ This list was compiled by Professors Henzlik, Broady, and Platt of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

² Geographical areas used in this study: Eastern (including New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania); Southern (including District of Columbia, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and the states farther south); Great Lakes (including Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin); Great Plains (including Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Oklahoma); and Western (including Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming).

³ A limited supply of a mimeographed summary is available: Address the N.E.A. Research Division, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

TABLE A.—DISTRIBUTION OF REPLIES FROM SUPERINTENDENTS

Size of community		Geographical groups												
		Eastern			Southern		Great Lakes		Great Plains		Western		Total	
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Under 500.....	14	3.10	37	9.25	56	10.73	145	22.59	33	11.38	285	12.36		
500-1,499.....	53	11.75	98	24.50	146	27.97	251	39.10	75	25.86	623	27.03		
1,500-2,499.....	56	12.42	73	18.25	89	17.05	85	13.24	35	12.07	338	14.66		
2,500-4,999.....	126	27.94	85	21.25	115	22.03	87	13.55	55	18.97	468	20.30		
5,000-7,499.....	103	22.84	50	12.50	64	12.26	48	7.48	41	14.14	306	13.28		
7,500-10,000.....	70	15.52	30	7.50	40	7.66	20	3.11	28	9.65	188	8.16		
Over 10,000.....	29	6.43	27	6.75	12	2.30	6	0.93	23	7.93	97	4.21		
Total.....	451	100.00	400	100.00	522	100.00	642	100.00	290	100.00	2,305	100.00		

TABLE B.—OFFICIAL TITLES OF EXECUTIVE

Size of community																	
Under 500			500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000		Over 10,000		Total		
No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		
218	76.49	462	74.16	230	68.45	309	66.31	235	77.05	146	77.66	78	80.41	1,678	72.96		
2	0.70	15	2.41	9	2.68	35	7.51	20	6.56	25	13.30	16	16.50	122	5.30		
0	0.00	1	0.16	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	1.03	2	0.09		
44	15.44	109	17.49	70	20.83	114	24.46	47	15.41	15	7.98	2	2.06	401	17.44		
18	6.32	33	5.30	25	7.44	8	1.72	3	0.98	1	0.53	0	0.00	88	3.83		
3	1.05	1	0.16	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	4	0.17		
0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.53	0	0.00	1	0.04		
0	0.00	2	0.32	2	0.60	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	4	0.17		
285	100.00	623	100.00	336	100.00	466	100.00	305	100.00	188	100.00	97	100.00	2,300	100.00		
Total.....																	

all from the Great Plains and Western states. Except for the Eastern states the preferred title in all areas is that of "superintendent of schools."

How is the chief executive chosen?—Table C shows that in 94 percent of the cases the chief executive of a small school system is chosen by the local schoolboard. Joint action by several local boards is most frequent in the towns of about 10,000 because (as shown in Table B) many of these executives are district superintendents in charge of several small units.

The geographical distributions reveal that the local schoolboard in the South is less likely to select the chief executive because the county or parish board often exercises this function. The statement still holds, however, that in the vast majority of cases, as in the large city school systems, the local board is responsible for the type of professional leadership which exists in the small community.

What are the ages of superintendents?—Half of the superintendents in small communities reporting in Table D are less than thirty-nine years of age; one-third between the ages of forty and forty-nine; and the remainder, fifty years and over. Table D shows that the younger executives are to be found in the smallest villages particularly in towns under 2500 in population. Relatively few executives were reported for the towns over 2500 in population who were less than thirty years of age. The median age for the entire group is forty years as compared with forty-four years in the 1933 study.⁴

The geographical tabulations show that the Great Plains and Southern areas have the largest proportion of superintendents under thirty years of age. The largest proportion of executives over fifty years of age is found in the Eastern area.

What college degrees do superintendents have?—Interestingly enough less than 2 percent of the superintendents failed to report at least one college degree. A majority of the executives in towns under 1500 population (Table E) have a bachelor's degree only. In the larger towns, about seven out of ten superintendents report a master's degree. Almost 1 percent reported having doctor's degrees

⁴ The 1933 study included the superintendents in the larger cities: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *Educational Leadership: Progress and Possibilities*. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1933. p. 99-147.

TABLE C.—PROCEDURE IN SELECTION OF SUPERINTENDENTS

How chosen	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	5	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Popular election	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00
Local school board	267	93 68	283	94 19	315	94 51	445	94 26	287	94 72	179	96 24
Local board and district superintendent	0	0 00	1	0 16	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00
Local board and county superintendent or county board	7	2 46	1	0 16	10	2 99	5	1 67	2	0 66	0	0 00
Local board and state superintendent or state board	0	0 00	2	0 52	0	0 00	3	0 64	4	1 32	3	1 61
Local board plus county office and state office	0	0 00	0	0 00	0	0 00	1	0 22	0	0 00	0	0 00
Local boards—joint meeting	0	0 00	7	3 13	0	0 00	6	1 28	8	2 64	0	0 00
County superintendent	5	1 76	13	2 16	7	2 10	7	1 49	0	0 00	3	1 61
County or parish school board	4	1 40	8	1 29	1	0 30	1	0 22	7	0 66	1	0 54
County superintendent and county board	2	0 70	4	0 65	1	0 30	1	0 22	0	0 00	0	0 00
Total	285	100 00	619	100 00	354	100 00	467	100 00	503	100 00	196	100 00
											96	100 00
											2,290	100 00

TABLE D.—AGES OF SUPERINTENDENTS

Age	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Under 30.....	56	19.86	88	14.36	24	7.27	8	1.73	3	1.01	1	0.55
30-39.....	173	61.35	318	51.88	139	48.18	193	41.78	79	26.51	35	19.12
40-49.....	42	14.89	157	25.61	115	34.85	165	35.71	143	47.99	85	46.45
50-59.....	10	3.55	43	7.01	28	8.49	76	16.45	56	18.79	48	26.23
60-69.....	1	0.35	7	1.14	4	1.21	20	4.33	16	5.37	12	6.56
70 and over.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.33	2	1.09
Total.....	282	100.00	613	100.00	330	100.00	462	100.00	298	100.00	183	100.00
Median.....	34.9		36.9		38.9		41.8		44.7		46.6	
											93	100.00
											46.6	
											2,251	100.00
											39.8	

TABLE E.—COLLEGE DEGREES HELD BY SUPERINTENDENTS

Degrees held	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Bachelor's.....	187	67.27	318	51.79	111	33.04	111	24.29	62	20.67	36	19.67
Master's.....	91	32.73	293	47.72	219	65.18	336	73.52	222	74.00	134	73.22
Ph. D.....	0	0.00	1	0.16	4	1.19	6	1.31	8	2.67	11	6.01
Ed. D.....	0	0.00	2	0.33	2	0.59	4	0.88	6	2.00	1	0.55
LL. D.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.33	1	0.55
D. Litt.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.33	0	0.00
Total.....	278	100.00	614	100.00	336	100.00	457	100.00	300	100.00	183	100.00
											95	100.00
											2,263	100.00
											39.8	
											853	37.69
											1,359	60.05
											32	1.42
											16	0.71
											2	0.09
											1	0.04

TABLE F.—FIELDS OF MAJOR STUDY IN COLLEGE—UNDERGRADUATE

Undergraduate	Size of community															Total							
	Under 500			500-1,499			1,500-2,499			2,500-4,999			5,000-7,499			7,500-10,000			Over 10,000			Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17							
Agriculture.....	12	4.35	17	2.81	7	2.20	15	3.36	7	2.41	1	0.55	2	2.27	61	2.76							
Ancient language.....	1	0.36	1	0.17	0	0.00	1	0.22	4	1.37	4	2.21	0	0.00	11	0.50							
Arts (music, etc.).....	0	0.00	2	0.33	2	0.63	1	0.22	0	0.00	2	1.11	0	0.00	7	0.32							
Business administration.....	11	3.99	11	1.82	9	2.82	8	1.79	6	2.06	2	1.11	2	2.27	49	2.22							
Education.....	23	8.33	51	8.43	27	8.46	51	11.41	32	11.00	19	10.50	14	15.91	217	9.83							
Education plus others.....	17	6.16	49	8.10	27	8.46	42	9.40	17	5.84	8	4.42	4	4.55	164	7.43							
Engineering.....	1	0.36	2	0.33	0	0.00	5	1.12	0	0.00	0	0.00	3	3.41	11	0.50							
English.....	7	2.54	13	2.15	14	4.39	16	3.58	11	3.78	7	3.87	3	3.41	71	3.22							
English plus others.....	8	2.90	23	3.80	24	7.52	23	5.14	26	8.94	18	9.94	6	6.82	128	5.80							
General science.....	19	6.88	45	7.44	20	6.27	36	8.05	26	8.94	17	9.39	9	10.22	172	7.79							
General science plus others.....	10	3.62	26	4.30	18	5.64	15	3.36	17	5.84	9	4.97	3	3.41	98	4.44							
Journalism.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.31	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.05							
Manual arts.....	1	0.36	1	0.17	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	0.09							
Mathematics.....	20	7.25	20	3.31	10	3.14	17	3.80	15	5.15	6	3.32	4	4.55	92	4.17							
Mathematics plus others.....	15	5.44	50	8.26	29	9.09	32	7.16	19	6.53	18	9.94	4	4.55	167	7.57							
Modern language.....	1	0.36	4	0.66	1	0.31	5	1.12	6	2.06	7	3.87	1	1.14	25	1.13							
Physical education.....	8	2.90	14	2.31	0	0.00	3	0.67	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	1.14	26	1.18							
Science (zoology, ecology, entomology).....	6	2.17	12	1.98	9	2.82	3	0.67	6	2.06	4	2.21	2	2.27	42	1.90							
Science (chemistry, physics, geology).....	9	3.26	18	2.97	12	3.76	13	2.91	6	2.06	5	2.76	0	0.00	63	2.85							
Social studies.....	53	19.20	122	20.16	59	18.50	81	18.12	56	19.24	37	20.44	20	22.72	428	19.39							
Social studies plus others.....	24	8.70	64	10.58	28	8.78	42	9.40	18	6.19	12	6.63	5	5.68	193	8.75							
Miscellaneous combinations.....	30	10.87	60	9.92	22	6.90	38	8.50	19	6.53	5	2.76	5	5.68	179	8.11							
Total.....	276	100.00	605	100.00	319	100.00	447	100.00	291	100.00	181	100.00	88	100.00	2,207	100.00							

which compares favorably with the status of all city superintendents as reported in 1933.⁵

Generally speaking, the Eastern and Great Lakes superintendents appear to have more advanced college training than executives in the other three areas. From 62 to 68 percent hold a master's degree in these two areas; the Western (58 percent), Great Plains (57 percent), and Southern (48 percent) states follow in this order.

What major subjects were studied in the undergraduate years?—Of the total group of school executives 19 percent had an undergraduate major in the social studies; an additional 9 percent had a major combining social studies with other subjects. Similar proportions are found in Table F in all population groups. Next to social studies in frequency as undergraduate majors appear education, general science, and mathematics.

In the geographical areas the order of preference for undergraduate majors was:

Eastern: social studies, general science, and education.

Southern: social studies, English (combinations), and mathematics (combinations).

Great Lakes: social studies, mathematics (combinations), and general science.

Great Plains: social studies, education, and education (combinations).

Western: social studies, education, and general science.

In what fields of graduate study have school executives had experience?—Eighty percent of the superintendents reported (Table G) that they had graduate majors in education. The highest proportion (86.5 percent) was reported by superintendents of towns in the 5000-7499 population group; the lowest proportion (75.8 percent) was reported by executives in the communities under 500 in population.

An education major combined with other subjects was reported by nearly 8 percent of the total group of executives. No other fields except social studies (3.3 percent exclusive graduate major, 2.7 percent in combination) were reported by more than 1 percent of the administrators.

⁵ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *op. cit.*, p. 108.

TABLE G.—FIELDS OF MAJOR STUDY IN COLLEGE—GRADUATE

Graduate	Size of community														
	Under 500			500-1,499			1,500-2,499			2,500-4,999			5,000-7,499		
	No.		Percent	No.		Percent	No.		Percent	No.		Percent	No.		Percent
	2	3		4	5		6	7		8	9		10	11	
Agriculture.....	4	1.86		1	0.20		1	0.34		0	0.00		0	0.00	
Ancient language.....	0	0.00		1	0.20		0	0.00		1	0.24		0	0.00	6
Arts (music, etc.).....	0	0.00		1	0.20		0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00	0
Business administration.....	1	0.46		4	0.79		1	0.34		1	0.24		0	0.00	2
Education.....	163	75.81		388	76.38		236	80.55		342	81.62		244	86.53	1
Education plus others.....	15	6.98		38	7.48		22	7.51		37	8.83		19	6.74	8
Engineering.....	0	0.00		1	0.20		0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00	1,584
English.....	2	0.93		3	0.59		1	0.34		1	0.24		0	0.00	150
English plus others.....	2	0.93		0	0.00		3	1.02		2	0.48		0	0.00	7
General science.....	2	0.93		4	0.79		0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00	9
General science plus others.....	3	1.40		3	0.59		0	0.00		1	0.24		0	0.00	0
Mathematics.....	1	0.46		3	0.59		2	0.68		1	0.24		0	0.00	7
Mathematics plus others.....	0	0.00		4	0.79		0	0.00		6	1.43		0	0.00	10
Modern language.....	0	0.00		2	0.39		1	0.34		0	0.00		0	0.00	0
Physical education.....	0	0.00		2	0.39		0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00	11
Science (zoology, ecology, entomology).....	1	0.46		3	0.59		2	0.68		0	0.00		0	0.00	3
Science (chemistry, physics, geology).....	3	1.40		5	0.98		0	0.00		1	0.24		0	0.00	2
Social studies.....	11	5.12		23	4.52		11	3.75		10	2.39		3	1.07	6
Social studies plus others.....	3	1.40		16	3.15		4	1.37		12	2.86		8	2.84	9
Miscellaneous combinations.....	4	1.86		7	1.38		5	1.71		3	0.71		5	1.77	65
Total.....	215	100.00		508	100.00		293	100.00		419	100.00		282	100.00	1,969
															100.00

A geographical distribution shows 84 percent of the Eastern superintendents reporting graduate majors in education; 83.9 percent in the Great Lakes area; 81 percent in the Great Plains; 75 percent in the Western region; and 74 percent in the South. Relatively more majors in social studies were reported from the Southern region; relatively fewer from the Great Lakes states.

How many years of experience in schoolwork do superintendents have?—Experience, like age, shows a direct relationship to community size (Table H). In the towns of less than 500 the median length of experience was eleven years; in towns above 7500 in population the median amount of experience reported was twenty-three years. Six percent of the executives in the smallest villages reported more than twenty-five years of experience while about 40 percent of those in the larger towns had this long a period of activity.

Arranged geographically these data indicate that, in general, executives in the Eastern area have had longer periods of experience in schoolwork than superintendents in the other four areas. The proportions with short professional careers were largest in the Great Plains and Southern areas.

What type of position was held preceding the present one?—According to Table I, one-third of the superintendents in small communities were secondary-school principals immediately before their present positions. One in four was a superintendent, probably in a community under 2500 in population. Fourteen percent gave up high-school teaching positions to accept their present administrative work. In the Eastern states the preceding position was most likely to have been (a) a secondary-school principalship, (b) secondary classroom teaching, or (c) a supervising principalship. In the Great Plains area, however, a superintendency in a small village was by all odds the most frequent type of immediately previous experience.

What salaries are paid to superintendents in small communities?—Salaries show a closer relationship to community size than any other factor in the present survey. Table J shows that in towns below 2500 in population relatively few executives reported more than \$4000 per year. In communities above 2500 in population relatively few superintendents reported salaries below \$2000 per year. The median salary of the entire group of superintendents was \$2479 for 1936-37.

TABLE I.—TYPE OF POSITION HELD PRECEDING PRESENT ONE

Position	Size of community														Total	
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000		Over 10,000			
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
County, district, union, and assistant superintendent.....	4	1.41	8	1.29	12	3.58	26	5.58	15	4.95	9	4.81	5	5.15	79	3.45
City superintendent or assistant:																
Under 2,500.....	61	21.56	159	25.65	63	18.81	75	16.09	35	11.55	8	4.28	1	1.03	402	17.55
2,500-5,000.....	1	0.35	5	0.81	4	1.19	31	6.65	36	11.88	17	9.09	5	5.15	99	4.32
5,000 and over.....	0	0.00	4	0.64	2	0.60	9	1.93	5	1.65	22	11.76	17	17.53	99	2.57
No size given.....	12	4.24	35	5.65	18	5.37	17	3.65	17	5.61	3	1.61	6	6.19	108	4.71
Secondary-school principal.....	95	33.57	173	27.90	124	37.01	156	33.48	116	38.29	80	42.78	36	37.11	780	34.05
Elementary-school principal.....	7	2.47	23	3.71	14	4.18	25	5.37	20	6.60	10	5.35	8	8.25	107	4.67
Principal or assistant (school level not reported).....	10	3.54	22	3.55	21	6.27	22	4.72	17	5.61	11	5.88	2	2.06	105	4.58
Supervising principal.....	2	0.71	10	1.61	15	4.48	23	4.94	12	3.96	11	5.88	3	3.09	76	3.32
Secondary-school teacher.....	71	25.09	124	20.00	45	13.43	53	11.37	14	4.62	7	3.74	4	4.13	318	13.88
Elementary-school teacher.....	12	4.24	23	3.71	5	1.49	3	0.64	3	0.99	1	0.53	0	0.00	47	2.05
Teacher (school level not reported).....	3	1.06	3	0.48	1	0.30	4	0.86	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	11	0.48
University instructor.....	1	0.35	9	1.45	3	0.90	6	1.29	4	1.32	3	1.61	3	3.09	29	1.27
University student.....	2	0.71	6	0.97	1	0.30	2	0.43	1	0.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	12	0.52
State department.....	1	0.35	1	0.16	1	0.30	5	1.07	4	1.32	3	1.61	1	1.03	16	0.70
Miscellaneous.....	1	0.35	15	2.42	6	1.79	9	1.93	4	1.32	2	1.07	6	6.19	43	1.88
Total.....	283	100.00	620	100.00	335	100.00	466	100.00	303	100.00	187	100.00	97	100.00	2,291	100.00

TABLE J.—SCHEDULED SALARIES FOR SCHOOL YEAR 1936-37

Salary	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Below \$1,000.....	7	2.69	4	0.66	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
\$1,000-\$1,499.....	91	35.00	92	15.16	20	6.13	6	1.30	2	0.67	0	0.00
\$1,500-\$1,999.....	112	43.08	252	41.52	82	25.15	24	5.22	9	3.01	0	0.00
\$2,000-\$2,499.....	45	17.31	174	28.67	106	32.51	80	17.39	18	6.02	6	3.32
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	3	1.15	49	8.07	69	21.17	115	25.00	46	15.38	14	7.73
\$3,000-\$3,499.....	2	0.77	20	3.29	32	9.82	133	28.91	82	27.43	26	19.89
\$3,500-\$3,999.....	0	0.00	6	0.99	13	3.99	58	12.61	61	20.40	53	29.28
\$4,000-\$4,499.....	0	0.00	6	0.99	0	0.00	25	5.44	35	11.71	37	20.44
\$4,500-\$4,999.....	0	0.00	1	0.16	3	0.92	12	2.61	19	6.35	11	6.08
\$5,000 and above.....	0	0.00	3	0.49	1	0.31	7	1.52	27	9.03	24	13.26
Total.....	260	100.00	607	100.00	326	100.00	460	100.00	799	100.00	181	100.00
Median.....	\$1,643		\$1,912		\$2,288		\$3,019		\$3,454		\$3,825	
											\$4,088	
											2,227	100.00
											\$2,479	

The geographical tabulations show relatively more of the higher salaries in the Eastern, Western, and Great Lakes areas than in the Southern and Great Plains regions. Almost 52 percent of the executives of the Great Plains states reported salaries of less than \$2000 per year.

What security of position exists?—The median period of service in the present superintendency is nearly six years according to Table K. Relatively more of the superintendents of the smallest villages have been on the job one year or less. At the same time, relatively more of the executives of the towns above 2500 in population have been in their present positions for ten or more years. Short periods of service become more characteristic in the various regions as we proceed from the Great Lakes and Eastern areas to the West, South, and Great Plains. This is probably to be expected since, in general, salaries are lowest in the Great Plains states.

(1) *Tenure*—Three superintendents out of four do not believe that they are protected by tenure laws. No differences in this proportion were revealed on the basis of community size. The geographical tabulations, however, showed regional differences. For example, nearly 50 percent of the Eastern superintendents reported that they were protected by “tenure” laws; in the other regions from 75 to 90 percent reported no “tenure” protection. Since analysis of state tenure laws shows that relatively few administrators are protected, the answers to this question undoubtedly have been influenced by knowledge of laws permitting long-time contracts.⁶

(2) *Contracts*—Eighty-six percent of the entire group of superintendents reported that they have written contracts. In places of less than 500 population, nine out of ten executives have written contracts; only seven out of ten have written contracts in towns of about 10,000 population. The towns between these extremes are consistent with the statement that the smaller the town the more likelihood of a written contract. Written contracts were reported by almost 100 percent of the executives in the Great Plains area; 91 percent in the Western states; 89 percent in the Great Lakes region; 75 percent in the South; and 74 percent in the East.

⁶ Actually about one city superintendent in ten is protected by state tenure laws: East (Massachusetts); Great Lakes (Indiana and Wisconsin); and Great Plains (Minnesota and Kansas City). State tenure laws do not protect superintendents in the South and in the West.

TABLE K.—YEARS COMPLETED IN PRESENT POSITION

Years completed	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Less than 1 year	4	1.56	8	1.42	2	0.66	2	0.46	2	0.69	2	1.11
1	52	20.23	88	15.63	38	12.46	54	12.33	24	8.28	16	5.38
2	48	18.68	94	16.70	52	17.05	41	9.36	33	11.38	23	8.84
3	36	14.01	78	13.85	40	13.11	42	9.59	21	7.24	14	7.73
4	19	7.39	42	7.46	24	7.87	20	4.56	14	4.83	11	6.08
5-9	75	29.18	155	27.53	91	29.84	131	29.91	76	26.21	47	25.97
10-14	16	6.23	71	12.61	41	13.44	84	19.18	65	22.41	34	18.78
15 years and over	7	2.72	27	4.80	17	5.57	64	14.61	55	18.96	34	18.78
Total	257	100.00	563	100.00	305	100.00	438	100.00	290	100.00	181	100.00
Median	3.7		4.3		4.9		7.3		8.4		9.3	8.4
											2.127	100.00
											5.7	

TABLE L.—TOTAL PERIOD OF CONTRACT

Total period	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Less than one year	7	2.62	16	2.85	4	1.31	3	0.73	1	0.40	1	0.65
One year	239	89.52	429	76.47	195	64.14	204	49.64	107	43.14	53	34.64
Two years	7	2.62	30	5.35	31	10.20	49	11.92	27	10.89	18	11.77
Three years	3	1.12	45	8.02	41	13.49	96	23.36	61	24.60	35	22.88
Four years	2	0.75	6	1.07	10	3.29	16	3.90	22	8.87	27	17.65
Five years	0	0.00	3	0.53	3	0.99	10	2.43	11	4.44	12	7.84
Six years	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.24	0	0.00	0	0.00
Eight years	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Ten years	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Thirteen years	3	1.12	14	2.50	8	2.63	19	4.62	12	4.84	4	2.61
Indefinite tenure	4	1.50	14	2.50	11	3.62	10	2.43	6	2.42	2	1.31
Continuous	2	0.75	4	0.71	1	0.33	3	0.73	1	0.40	0	0.00
Permanent or life												
Total	267	100.00	561	100.00	304	100.00	411	100.00	248	100.00	153	100.00
											75	100.00
											2,019	100.00

Table L shows the period of service provided in the written contracts of school executives. Nearly 62 percent of the entire group have written contracts for one year; 31 percent have written contracts for two to five years. In cities under 500 in population at least nine out of ten contracts are for one year; in towns above 7500 in population about three out of ten are for the one-year period. Three-year contracts were reported by at least one in four executives in towns above 2500 population but were not commonly reported from the smaller villages.

One-year contracts were most characteristic of the Great Plains area (73 percent) and least common in the East (36 percent). Two-year contracts were relatively more common in the Western states (17 percent) and least frequently reported in the East (0.89 percent). Three-year contracts appeared to be most characteristic of the Great Lakes area (21 percent) and least common in the South (9 percent).

Characteristics of Small School Systems

What types of school systems are represented in the present study? How many teachers and pupils are supervised by these superintendents? What grades are usually found in small school systems?

What kinds of administrative units are represented?—As Table M shows, nearly three-fourths of the replies in the present study were from superintendents of independent district units; 6 percent were from union districts; 5 percent from township units; 11 percent from county units; and about 3 percent from supervisory areas.

About one-third of the replies from the South were from county units; the East had relatively large proportions of supervisory units (13 percent) and union districts (13.6 percent); the Great Plains area reported 94 percent independent districts; the Great Lakes revealed relatively more township units than elsewhere; and the Western region included relatively more union districts (15 percent). Thruout all regions, however, the independent district was most characteristic.

What is the size of the schoolboard?—Almost 100 percent of the superintendents reported that they worked with local boards of education or district trustees. These local boards were less fre-

TABLE M.—TYPE OF ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT REPORTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS

Classification	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Independent district.....	209	73.59	470	75.69	229	68.56	350	75.11	243	79.41	144	77.01
Union district.....	21	7.39	33	5.32	16	4.79	28	6.01	24	7.84	17	9.09
Township unit.....	13	4.58	31	4.99	28	8.38	17	3.65	11	3.60	8	4.28
County unit.....	34	11.97	79	12.72	54	16.17	47	10.08	15	4.90	9	4.81
Supervisory unit.....	4	1.41	4	0.64	4	1.20	19	4.08	12	3.92	8	4.28
Miscellaneous.....	3	1.06	4	0.64	3	0.90	5	1.07	1	0.33	1	0.53
Total.....	284	100.00	621	100.00	334	100.00	466	100.00	306	100.00	187	100.00
											95	100.00
											16	17
											1,702	74.23
											145	6.32
											108	4.71
											257	11.21
											63	2.75
											18	0.78
											2,293	100.00

TABLE N.—NUMBER OF MEMBERS ON LOCAL SCHOOLBOARD

Answer	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
3.....	100	36.36	151	25.33	67	20.87	64	14.16	35	11.59	18	9.78
4.....	0	0.00	4	0.67	3	0.94	4	0.89	2	0.66	0	0.00
5.....	114	41.45	245	41.11	150	46.73	214	47.35	118	39.07	67	36.41
6.....	44	16.00	137	22.99	46	14.33	58	12.83	41	13.58	18	9.78
7.....	7	2.55	34	5.70	25	7.79	49	10.84	54	17.88	50	27.18
8.....	3	1.09	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.22	0	0.00	0	0.00
9.....	0	0.00	6	1.01	8	2.49	20	4.42	24	7.95	15	8.15
Several boards (ranging in size from 1-9 members; total board members from 1-24).....	7	2.55	19	3.19	22	6.85	42	9.29	28	9.27	16	8.70
Total.....	275	100.00	596	100.00	321	100.00	452	100.00	302	100.00	184	100.00
											23	24.73
											157	7.06
											2,223	100.00
											446	20.06
											13	0.59
											935	42.06
											360	16.20
											231	10.39
											4	0.18
											77	3.46

quent in the Southern and Great Lakes states because of the presence of relatively more township and county units in these areas.

Over 60 percent of the schoolboards reported in Table N consist of three or five members. An additional 27 percent have six or seven members. In general, boards of three members are relatively more frequent in the smallest villages; boards of seven or nine members appear in numbers in towns above 2500 in population.

Small boards of three members were reported by one out of three superintendents in the Western states; one in four of the executives in the Great Lakes area. Boards consisting of six members were reported by 44 percent of the replies from the Great Plains area. This size of board scarcely existed elsewhere excepting in the Western area (about one in ten). Seven-member boards were apparently most common in the Southern and Great Lakes areas; nine-member boards appeared with relatively greater frequency in the Eastern area.

What grades are included in the school system?—Eighty-eight percent of the replies revealed that the small system consists of a combination of the elementary and secondary levels. Less than 4 percent in each case are made up of elementary schools *only* or secondary schools *only*. No very marked differences are shown on the basis of community size (Table O).

The geographical tabulations show that elementary *only* systems are more characteristic of the Western area than of any other region; exclusively secondary-school systems are found with greatest frequency in the West and East. Comprehensive systems extending from the elementary school thru the junior college were scarcely mentioned except in the Great Plains and Western areas.

What is the enrolment of schools in small communities?—Taking the replies as a group the median elementary-school enrolment was 302 pupils; the secondary, 182 students. Judging from Table P, post-high school, college, and adult education are not relatively well developed in many small communities.

As might be expected school enrolments show a definite relationship with the total population of communities. In villages of less than 500 population, more than half report elementary-school enrolments of less than 100 pupils; and 41 percent have high schools of less than fifty students. Towns of the 2500-4999 population group

TABLE O.—GRADES INCLUDED IN SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Scope of school system	Size of community											
	Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Elementary school only.....	2	0.70	10	1.61	3	0.89	28	5.98	20	6.54	12	6.38
Elementary and junior high or elementary plus 1-3 years of high school.....	22	7.75	13	2.09	3	0.89	14	2.99	3	0.98	9	4.79
Elementary, junior high, and senior high schools, or elementary and high school.....	241	84.86	562	90.50	310	92.27	409	87.39	268	87.58	160	85.11
Less than 4 years of high school only.....	4	1.41	3	0.48	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Junior-senior high school.....	4	1.41	8	1.29	3	0.89	1	0.21	1	0.33	1	0.53
Four-year high school only.....	11	3.87	25	4.03	16	4.76	12	2.57	5	1.63	3	1.60
Four-year high school and junior college only.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.53
Elementary thru junior college....	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.30	4	0.86	9	2.94	2	1.06
Total.....	284	100.00	621	100.00	336	100.00	468	100.00	306	100.00	188	100.00
											97	100.00
											2,300	100.00
											16	17
											78	3.39
											65	2.83
											2,034	88.44
											7	0.30
											19	0.83
											75	3.26
											1	0.04
											21	0.91

TABLE P.—STUDENT ENROLMENT IN THREE SCHOOL LEVELS

Enrolment		Size of community														Total								
		Under 500			500-1,499			1,500-2,499			2,500-4,999			5,000-7,499			7,500-10,000			Over 10,000				
		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent
1		2	3		4	5		6	7		8	9		10	11		12	13		14	15		16	17
Elementary																								
Under 50		59	20.70	12	1.92			5	1.48		4	0.85		1	0.33		0	0.00		0	0.00		81	3.51
50-99		104	36.49	133	21.35			7	2.07		2	0.43		3	0.98		0	0.00		0	0.00		246	10.67
100-199		82	28.77	268	43.02			76	22.48		13	2.78		35	11.44		1	0.53		0	0.00		443	19.22
200-499		21	7.37	136	21.83			188	55.62		202	43.16		193	63.07		5	2.66		7	7.22		587	25.47
500-999		0	0.00	33	5.30			18	5.33		197	42.09		193	63.07		75	39.89		79	81.44		523	22.69
1,000 and over		0	0.00	1	0.16			14	4.14		15	3.21		50	16.34		84	44.68		79	81.44		243	10.54
None		19	6.67	40	6.42			30	8.88		35	7.48		24	7.84		23	12.24		11	11.34		182	7.90
Total		285	100.00	623	100.00			338	100.00		468	100.00		306	100.00		188	100.00		97	100.00		2,305	100.00
Median		81		147				281			467			733			933			+1,000		302		
Secondary																								
Under 50		118	41.40	46	7.39			0	0.00		1	0.21		1	0.33		0	0.00		0	0.00		166	7.20
50-99		96	33.69	220	35.31			32	9.47		5	1.07		8	2.61		0	0.00		1	1.03		355	15.40
100-199		49	17.19	256	41.09			169	50.00		51	10.90		146	47.71		3	1.59		0	0.00		536	23.25
200-499		9	3.16	64	10.27			103	30.47		307	65.60		112	36.60		43	22.87		8	8.25		680	29.50
500-999		0	0.00	5	0.80			11	3.26		47	10.04		112	36.60		92	48.94		30	30.93		297	12.89
1,000 and over		0	0.00	0	0.00			4	1.18		2	0.43		4	1.31		21	11.17		46	47.42		77	3.34
None		13	4.56	32	5.14			19	5.62		55	11.75		34	11.11		29	15.43		12	12.37		194	8.42
Total		285	100.00	623	100.00			338	100.00		468	100.00		306	100.00		188	100.00		97	100.00		2,305	100.00
Median		56		105				170			319			424			603			958		182		
Post-high school, college, and adult																								
Under 50		26	9.12	103	16.53			70	20.71		108	23.08		64	20.91		35	18.62		15	15.47		421	18.26
50-99		0	0.00	2	0.32			1	0.30		4	0.86		9	2.94		0	0.00		4	4.13		20	0.87
100-199		1	0.35	3	0.48			1	0.30		1	0.21		7	2.29		3	1.60		3	3.09		19	0.82
200-499		0	0.00	0	0.00			0	0.00		3	0.64		4	1.31		2	1.06		2	2.06		11	0.48
500-999		0	0.00	1	0.16			1	0.30		1	0.21		0	0.00		1	0.53		3	3.09		7	0.30
1,000 and over		0	0.00	0	0.00			0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00		0	0.00		2	2.06		2	0.09
None		258	90.53	514	82.51			265	78.39		351	75.00		222	72.55		147	78.19		68	70.10		1,825	79.18
Total		285	100.00	623	100.00			338	100.00		468	100.00		306	100.00		188	100.00		97	100.00		2,305	100.00

TABLE Q.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN THREE SCHOOL LEVELS

Number employed		Size of community														Total									
		Under 500			500-1,499			1,500-2,499			2,500-4,999			5,000-7,499				7,500-10,000			Over 10,000				
		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.	Percent				No.	Percent		No.	Percent		No.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17								
Elementary																									
1 teacher.....		2	0.70	2	0.32	1	0.30	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	5	0.22								
2-3.....		134	47.02	114	18.30	8	2.36	2	0.43	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	258	11.19								
4-5.....		98	34.39	249	39.97	44	13.02	9	1.92	1	0.33	1	0.53	0	0.00	402	17.44								
6-7.....		20	7.02	90	14.45	75	22.19	23	4.92	1	0.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	209	9.07								
8-9.....		9	3.16	70	11.24	88	26.03	33	7.05	7	2.29	2	1.06	0	0.00	209	9.07								
10-11.....		3	1.05	17	2.73	49	14.50	39	8.33	3	0.98	0	0.00	0	0.00	111	4.81								
12-13.....		0	0.00	0	1.44	13	3.85	58	12.39	10	3.27	3	1.60	0	0.00	93	4.03								
14-15.....		0	0.00	5	0.80	9	2.66	43	9.19	16	5.23	1	0.53	0	0.00	74	3.21								
16-17.....		0	0.00	8	1.28	3	0.89	66	14.10	22	7.19	1	0.53	0	0.00	100	4.34								
18-19.....		0	0.00	2	0.32	0	0.00	50	10.68	21	6.86	4	2.13	0	0.00	77	3.34								
20 and over.....		5	1.75	34	5.46	33	9.76	122	26.07	204	66.66	164	87.24	88	90.72	650	28.20								
None.....		14	4.91	23	3.69	15	4.44	23	4.92	21	6.86	12	6.38	9	9.28	117	5.08								
Total.....		285	100.00	623	100.00	338	100.00	468	100.00	306	100.00	188	100.00	97	100.00	2,305	100.00								
Median.....		3.9		5.4		8.6		16.1		+20		+20		+20		9.5									
Secondary																									
1 teacher.....		14	4.91	4	0.64	0	0.00	1	0.21	1	0.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	20	0.87								
2-3.....		121	42.46	84	13.49	4	1.18	2	0.43	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	211	9.15								
4-5.....		85	29.83	232	37.24	70	20.71	10	2.14	2	0.65	0	0.00	0	0.00	399	17.31								
6-7.....		39	13.69	158	25.36	73	21.60	25	5.34	4	1.31	1	0.53	0	0.00	300	13.02								
8-9.....		12	4.21	57	9.15	64	18.94	47	10.04	11	3.59	2	1.06	1	1.03	194	8.42								
10-11.....		3	1.05	27	4.33	52	15.38	66	14.10	13	4.25	4	2.13	0	0.00	165	7.16								
12-13.....		1	0.35	15	2.41	22	6.51	66	14.10	27	8.82	6	3.19	2	2.06	139	6.03								
14-15.....		0	0.00	5	0.80	11	3.25	54	11.54	27	8.82	10	5.32	0	0.00	107	4.64								
16-17.....		0	0.00	4	0.64	7	2.07	48	10.26	38	12.42	12	6.38	0	0.00	109	4.73								
18-19.....		0	0.00	3	0.48	5	1.48	30	6.41	28	9.15	6	3.19	2	2.06	74	3.21								
20 and over.....		5	1.75	22	3.53	24	7.10	73	15.60	126	41.18	124	65.96	82	84.54	456	19.78								
None.....		5	1.75	12	1.93	6	1.78	46	9.83	29	9.48	23	12.24	10	10.31	131	5.68								
Total.....		285	100.00	623	100.00	338	100.00	468	100.00	306	100.00	188	100.00	97	100.00	2,305	100.00								
Median.....		4.1		5.8		8.5		13.1		18.1		+20		+20		8.9									

TABLE Q.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN THREE SCHOOL LEVELS (Continued)

Number employed		Size of community														Total	
		Under 500		500-1,499		1,500-2,499		2,500-4,999		5,000-7,499		7,500-10,000		Over 10,000			
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
Post-high school, college, and adult																	
1 teacher.....	0	0.00	6	0.96	8	2.36	3	0.64	7	2.29	4	2.13	2	2.06	30	1.30	
2-3.....	0	0.00	2	0.32	4	1.18	3	0.64	6	1.96	2	1.06	1	1.03	18	0.78	
4-5.....	0	0.00	3	0.48	1	0.30	1	0.21	2	0.65	4	2.13	0	0.00	11	0.48	
6-7.....	0	0.00	1	0.16	0	0.00	2	0.43	8	2.62	2	1.06	0	0.00	13	0.57	
8-9.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	4	0.86	2	0.65	0	0.00	0	0.00	6	0.26	
10-11.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	0.65	2	1.06	2	2.06	6	0.26	
12-13.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.30	1	0.21	2	0.65	0	0.00	1	1.03	6	0.26	
14-15.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.21	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	0.09	
16-17.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.30	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	1.03	1	0.04	
18-19.....	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.53	0	0.00	1	0.04	
20 and over.....	0	0.00	1	0.16	2	0.59	1	0.21	1	0.33	0	0.00	4	4.13	9	0.39	
None.....	285	100.00	610	97.92	321	94.97	452	96.59	276	90.20	172	91.50	86	88.66	2,202	95.53	
Total.....	285	100.00	623	100.00	338	100.00	468	100.00	306	100.00	188	100.00	97	100.00	2,305	100.00	

show about 50 percent with elementary enrolments of less than 500 pupils; and 65 percent with secondary enrolments ranging from 200 to 500 students.

Small enrolments of less than 100 elementary pupils are most characteristic of the Great Plains area; next most common in the Great Lakes and Western areas; less frequently reported in the Southern and Eastern regions. Secondary enrolments of less than 100 students were most frequently reported by the superintendents of the Great Plains area (37 percent). On the average, secondary enrolments tended to be largest in the Eastern area.

*How many teachers are employed in small school systems?—*Almost 50 percent of the school systems reporting from towns of less than 500 population have fewer than four elementary teachers and four secondary teachers. Four out of five have less than six elementary teachers; three out of four have less than six secondary teachers. None of the 285 systems in the smallest villages reported any teachers of adults (Table Q).

In the systems reporting from communities of 2500-5000 population, about 98 percent have six or more elementary teachers; 97 percent have six or more secondary teachers; 4 percent have teachers of adults.

The geographical tabulations show that the systems with few teachers are most characteristic of the Great Plains area. Fifty percent of the systems reporting from this area have less than six elementary teachers; 40 percent less than six secondary teachers.

Important Professional Problems in Small School Systems

In eight large areas of the superintendent's work the respondents were given an opportunity to rate the importance of certain problems. Usually six or eight specific problems were listed under each main heading with space allowed for the writing in of other problems.

The problems rated "very important" by the largest number of executives in each population group were given a rank of 1. Other rankings were similarly determined for each problem and each group. Table R shows only those problems which for most population groups were ranked as 1, 2, or 3.

In most instances a problem marked "1" in the smallest communities was also ranked first in the largest towns included in the present

TABLE R.—RANK ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF "VERY IMPORTANT" PROBLEMS IN EIGHT MAJOR AREAS

Areas and problems	Rank in communities of various sizes						
	Under 500 (ratings by 285 super- intendents)	500-1,499 (ratings by 623 super- intendents)	1,500-2,499 (ratings by 338 super- intendents)	2,500-4,999 (ratings by 468 super- intendents)	5,000-7,499 (ratings by 306 super- intendents)	7,500-10,000 (ratings by 188 super- intendents)	Over 10,000 (ratings by 97 super- intendents)
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1							
<i>Relationship with schoolboard</i>							
1. Obtaining outstanding laymen as board members	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Lack of information among board members as to objectives of modern education	2	2	2	2	3	3	2.5
3. Board members unwilling to delegate executive duties to superintendent	3	3	3	3	2	2	2.5
<i>Teacher personnel</i>							
1. Paying attractive salaries	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Finding time for supervision	2	2	3	3	3	2	2
3. Avoiding "home town" candidate who is not best choice	5.5	4	2	2	2	3	7
<i>Public relationships</i>							
1. Adequate financial support	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Developing interest in modern education	2.5	2	2	2	2	3	2
3. Constructive support of school policies	5	4	4	3	3	2	3
<i>Business management</i>							
1. Unwillingness of board to set up budget	1	1	1	2	2	1	2
2. Personnel trained to keep records	8	5	2	1	1	2.5	1
3. Demands of local, state, and national accounting	9	3	4	3	3	2.5	5.5
<i>School plant</i>							
1. Adjusting obsolete and poorly planned buildings	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Providing for recreational activities	1	2	2.5	2	2	3	6
3. Providing space and equipment for library	3	3	2.5	3	3	2	5
<i>School curriculum</i>							
1. Suitable courses for non-college students	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
2. Providing an adequate program of supervision	3	2	2.5	2	3	2	4
3. Providing individual instruction	5	4	2.5	3	2	5	1
<i>Pupil personnel</i>							
1. Providing guidance program	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Health examinations and instruction	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
3. Classifying handicapped pupils	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
<i>School organization</i>							
1. Providing kindergarten instruction in small school systems	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. Providing preschool instruction in small school systems	2	2	2	2	2	3	3.5
3. Providing classes for adults	3	4	3	3	3	4	3.5

study. This consistent ranking did not hold for every community-size group, but in a majority of cases it did for the following items:

- Obtaining outstanding laymen as board members.
- Paying attractive salaries.
- Adequate financial support.
- Unwillingness of board to set up budget.
- Adjusting obsolete and poorly planned buildings.
- Suitable courses for non-college students.
- Providing guidance program.
- Providing kindergarten instruction in small school systems.

Second and third rankings were not as uniform for all community-size groups as the first rankings. It is difficult to note any specific trends or conclusions. Perhaps the only conclusion is that, of the problems presented to school executives in small school systems those listed in Table R are the ones considered most important. Differences in rankings between community-size groups do not appear consistent enough in any direction to be considered of great significance.

The topics of the problems mentioned most frequently by executives of small school systems do not differ from those found in metropolitan areas. Certainly problems of adequate support, uninformed board members, lack of suitable buildings, and the others listed in Table R are found in New York City as well as in very small towns. Usually, however, the executives in the larger cities have more assistants to call upon. Also, a given problem is more likely to be recognized by everyone in the large city as requiring a specialist rather than the combined attention of the entire community. In small school systems there is often danger that too many cooks may spoil the broth. Hence, the small town superintendent's chief problem is one of developing technics appropriate to the circumstances under which he is required to work.

OFFICIAL RECORDS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

A Department of the National Education Association
of the United States

Officers 1938-39

President

JOHN A. SEXSON, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, Calif.

First Vicepresident

CHARLES B. GLENN, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham,
Ala.

Second Vicepresident

PAUL T. RANKIN, Supervising Director of Research and Infor-
mational Service, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.

Executive Secretary

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Wash-
ington, D. C.

Executive Committee

BEN G. GRAHAM, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.
J. C. COCHRAN, Superintendent of Schools, San Antonio, Texas
JESSE H. MASON, Superintendent of Schools, Canton, Ohio
J. W. RAMSEY, Superintendent of Schools, Fort Smith, Ark.
The President, First and Second Vicepresidents, ex officio

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY CLEVELAND MEETING, 1939

To the President, Executive Committee, and Members:

IN ACCORDANCE with the provisions of the constitution adopted at the New Orleans convention in 1937, the annual report of the activities of the American Association of School Administrators is presented herewith. It covers the period from January 1, 1938, to December 31, 1938.

The Atlantic City Convention

Superintendent Charles B. Glenn began to build his convention program immediately after the announcement of his election as president of the Association. Before leaving New Orleans, he sought advice from many sources. He consulted with educational leaders in his home state of Alabama. He spent a week visiting five of the cities extending invitations for the convention, and at each one program planning was an important item. A tentative outline of convention activities was ready for consideration by the Executive Committee at its annual meeting in April. Plans were unusually elaborate but unremitting effort during the remainder of the year brought most of them to fruition, and the result was a notable convention.

An audience of 10,500 persons greeted Helen Keller at the Monday evening session. All present were thrilled as they listened to the story of one whose life has been unmatched in all time, past and present, in her conquest of the physical handicaps with which she has been circumscribed from infancy. Tribute was paid to that great teacher of hers, Anne Sullivan Macy, without whom this attainment would have been impossible and her life incomplete. The background of Miss Keller's life and the interpretation of her address were given by her friend and companion, Polly Thomson.

The Good Neighbor Program on Tuesday evening was dedicated to the promotion of goodwill between the neighboring nations of the North American continent. Ambassador Francisco Castillo Nájera from Mexico, Senator The Honourable Adrian K. Hugessen of Canada, and Assistant Secretary of State Francis B. Sayre of Washington, D. C., recalled the significant achievements of their own countries and mentioned some of the difficulties with which

they were confronted. In a constructive way each one pointed out means of attaining mutual harmony and enlightened cooperation. Each address was preceded by a dance symbolic of the country represented, staged by girls and boys of the Atlantic City High School.

Many questions received serious consideration at convention sessions, such as federal relations to education, youth problems, the expanding program of industrial education, the life-centered curriculum, education for adjustment, teacher education, and the reduction of crime. William Lyon Phelps of Yale University spoke inspiringly on the theme, "Truth and Poetry." President James B. Conant of Harvard University had as his topic, "Higher Education in a Democracy." An honorary life membership in the American Association of School Administrators was presented to Charles H. Judd in recognition of his lifetime of distinguished service to American education.

President Glenn included in his program entertainment features which reflected the hospitality of his native Southland. The Friendship Dinner and the Ice Carnival on Wednesday evening furnished a delightful period of relaxation. The official count showed that 2268 persons were served at the Friendship Dinner, which was held in the magnificent ballroom in the Atlantic City Auditorium. The Ice Carnival which followed was the most beautiful entertainment event which many of us had ever seen. It featured stars from Canada, Sweden, and the United States. The largest audience to attend any convention session applauded almost continuously as the skaters in brilliant costumes performed under the glare of the enormous spotlights in the arena. Atlantic City's salute to President Glenn and the Sunny South was planned and financed by our hosts at Atlantic City. The Philadelphia Skating Club and Humane Society, the oldest skating club in the United States, contributed largely to the program.

At the closing convention session, President Glenn presented a scroll to Rear Admiral Richard E. Byrd, in acknowledgment of his important contributions to human knowledge and his sincerity and unselfishness in service to his fellow men. Following the presentation, Admiral Byrd and his frontiersmen in the Antarctic were featured in a radio dramatization broadcast from the stage over a coast-to-coast hookup. An intimate history of the Antarctic expeditions was then told in words by Admiral Byrd and illustrated by motion pictures.

The Executive Committee

Article IV of the constitution provides that the Executive Committee shall consist of seven members. The president and first and second vicepresidents are members *ex officio* and are elected annually. Four members, chosen by election, hold office for terms of four years. Four meetings of the Executive Committee were held during 1938, the first being at the Dennis Hotel, Atlantic City, Saturday, February 26. Members present were: Charles B. Glenn, Birmingham, Alabama, president; J. W. Ramsey, Fort Smith, Arkansas, second vicepresident; George C. Bush, South Pasadena, California; Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; J. C. Cochran, San Antonio, Texas; and Jesse H. Mason, Canton, Ohio.

It was voted to recommend that action be taken by the Atlantic City convention to permit a person to withdraw his name from the list of nominees for president of the Association, in which case the word *withdrawn* is to be printed after his name on the official ballot. This proposal was later ratified by the convention.

At the 1935 convention, it was voted that the printed report of the Committee on Resolutions must be available twenty-four hours in advance of presentation for adoption by the convention; but, probably due to an oversight, no action was taken concerning the procedure for handling resolutions from the floor. It was the sense of the Executive Committee that the rule which applies to the Committee on Resolutions should apply to all resolutions, the purpose being to have all such matters in printed form so that they may receive the attention which they deserve. Mr. Mason and Mr. Shankland were appointed as a committee to bring this matter to the attention of the convention. This was done at the Monday morning general session, and the convention voted that hereafter the procedure applying to the Committee on Resolutions shall apply to all other resolutions.

The new and old Executive Committees met in joint session at the Ambassador Hotel, Atlantic City, Thursday afternoon, March 3, at 4:15 o'clock. Members present were Charles B. Glenn, Birmingham, Alabama, president; John A. Sexson, Pasadena, California, president-elect; J. W. Ramsey, Fort Smith, Arkansas, second vicepresident; Paul T. Rankin, Detroit, Michigan, second vicepresident-elect; Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; J. C. Cochran, San Antonio, Texas; and Jesse H. Mason, Canton, Ohio.

The executive secretary reported that the annual election had been held according to the constitution and bylaws and that the tellers had certified to the election of the following officers: John A. Sexson, superintendent of schools, Pasadena, California, president; Paul T. Rankin, supervising director of research and informational service, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan, second vicepresident; J. W. Ramsey, superintendent of schools, Fort Smith, Arkansas, member of the Executive Committee for four years.

The executive secretary further reported that the convention had adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the American Association of School Administrators be instructed, in the counting of ballots incident to the election of president of the American Association of School Administrators, that the preferential system be interpreted and the ballots counted as follows:

1. If any nominee receives a majority of first choice votes, he shall be declared elected.
2. If no nominee receives a majority of first choice votes so that second and third choice votes are counted, first choice votes shall count 3, second choice votes 2, and third choice votes 1, with the nominee receiving the highest total declared elected.

Oral invitations for the 1939 convention were presented as follows: *Chicago, Illinois*—by President Robert C. Keenan of the Illinois Education Association, Chicago Division, and by Assistant Superintendent George F. Cassell of Chicago; *Cleveland, Ohio*—by Superintendent B. F. Stanton of Alliance, Ohio, and by Superintendent Charles H. Lake of Cleveland; *Detroit, Michigan*—by Superintendent Frank Cody, and by J. Lee Barrett of the Detroit Convention and Tourist Bureau; *Kansas City, Missouri*—by Superintendent George Melcher of Kansas City, Missouri, and by Superintendent F. L. Schlagle of Kansas City, Kansas; *St. Louis, Missouri*—by Superintendent Henry J. Gerling; *San Francisco, California*—by Superintendent J. P. Nourse of San Francisco, and by Superintendent L. John Nuttall, Jr., of Salt Lake City, Utah; *Toronto, Canada*—by the Toronto Convention and Tourist Association.

In order to ascertain the sentiment of the membership of the Association, it was voted, on motion of Mr. Graham, to send a questionnaire to all members of the Association asking them to express a preference as to the location of the convention city.

On motion of Mr. Mason, President Glenn and Secretary Shankland were authorized to pay all bills of the Association up to the

close of the Atlantic City convention, issuing checks against the special account of the Association in the usual manner.

The annual meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, April 26 and 27. Members present were: John A. Sexson, Pasadena, California, president; Paul T. Rankin, Detroit, Michigan, second vicepresident; Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; J. C. Cochran, San Antonio, Texas; Jesse H. Mason, Canton, Ohio; and J. W. Ramsey, Fort Smith, Arkansas. Executive Secretary Sherwood D. Shankland and H. A. Allan, business manager of the National Education Association, were also in attendance.

Superintendent Charles B. Glenn of Birmingham, Alabama, first vicepresident of the Association, was unable to attend on account of the sudden death of Mrs. Glenn. A message extending heartfelt sympathy on the part of all members of the Executive Committee was sent to Superintendent Glenn.

On motion of Mr. Rankin, it was voted to hold a breakfast in honor of President John A. Sexson on Wednesday morning, June 29, during the summer meeting of the National Education Association at New York City. Mr. Graham was named toastmaster, with power to prepare the program. Secretary Shankland was directed to make the necessary business arrangements.

For the purpose of preparing better coordinated convention programs, it was voted to invite the presidents and secretaries of allied organizations to a luncheon conference, Thursday noon, June 30. Twenty-four guests attended the luncheon, which was held at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City. There, President Sexson briefly outlined his convention plans, after which all present participated in a helpful general discussion of convention problems.

At the Atlantic City convention, Superintendent Fred E. Pitkin of North Andover, Massachusetts, presented a proposed amendment to the constitution of the American Association of School Administrators, which will come up for action at the 1939 convention. The proposal was as follows:

I move the following amendment to Article VII of the constitution which specifies the time of holding the annual meeting, namely: striking out the words, "on the fourth Sunday in February," and substituting, "on the Sunday of the week containing the twenty-second of February."

Washington's Birthday is a legal holiday. Many hotels have continuing contracts from year to year for the use of their ballrooms for Washington's Birthday festivities. Business houses are closed. To hold the convention in the week of Washington's Birthday would seriously cripple convention activities. In view of these facts, it was voted that the proposed amendment ought to be defeated and that a form letter stating the reasons why this amendment is inadvisable be sent to all members of the Association.

President Sexson reported that the questionnaire authorized by the Executive Committee at Atlantic City had been mailed to all members of the Association, asking them to express preferences (a) as to the location of the 1939 convention, and (b) concerning the 1939 program. Of those who replied, 53 percent favored selection of a city in the Great Lakes area; 27 percent favored a Missouri city; and 20 percent favored the Pacific Coast. Among the seven cities under consideration, Cleveland received the highest number of votes.

The tabulations were given serious consideration, and the convention facilities of the seven cities were reviewed with care before balloting began. On the fourth ballot, Cleveland received a majority of the votes cast. Mr. Allan was requested to visit Cleveland immediately with a view to negotiating a satisfactory lease from the city for the use of the Public Auditorium. He was also requested to call upon the Convention Bureau to furnish satisfactory detailed hotel guarantees.

The annual report of the executive secretary was submitted in writing. It covered, in considerable detail, the activities of the Association including the work of its various committees and commissions. It also included a statement of receipts and expenditures for several years past, together with estimates for the year 1938. It was discussed item by item and minor amendments were incorporated. On motion of Mr. Graham, the budget as amended was adopted, with estimated receipts of \$58,781.51 and estimated expenditures of \$59,980.43. Attention was called to the fact that the number of committees and commissions of the Association has increased materially within the last two years. As a result of this increase the estimated expenditures for 1938 are in excess of the estimated receipts.

A list of suggested topics for the 1941 yearbook was carefully considered. Final action was postponed until the next meeting of the Executive Committee. Meanwhile, the Research Division and the

headquarters staff were requested to make exploratory investigations with a view to determining the timeliness and relative values of the proposed topics. The list, as finally amended, was as follows:

1. New Developments in Elementary Education
2. Education for Family Life
3. Neglected Areas
4. Community Educational Resources
5. Population Trends.

On motion of Mr. Mason, it was voted to place Marion Brundage and Maxine Lindemood on the permanent roll as employees of the Educational Research Service.

President Sexson stated that the work of the Educational Policies Commission had now progressed to the point where it deserved an important place in program planning. He proposed that some of the more important aspects of the Commission's work should be emphasized in the general sessions at the Cleveland convention, which was agreed to.

The 1939 yearbook will deal with *Schools in Small Communities*. It was voted to devote the Tuesday morning general session of the convention to problems in this field. Attention will be further focused on the yearbook in several afternoon discussion groups, with themes helpful to those working in small school systems.

The Executive Committee held a dinner conference with officers of the Associated Exhibitors. Because of increased demand for tickets, the problem of accommodating the convention dinner of the Associated Exhibitors has become very difficult. At the Atlantic City convention tickets were issued to 1536 persons, and over a thousand other requests could not be met. Various plans for meeting the situation were proposed, but no final action was taken.

A special meeting of the Executive Committee was held in the Terminal Club of the Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, Saturday and Sunday, October 15 and 16. Members present were: John A. Sexson, Pasadena, California, president; Charles B. Glenn, Birmingham, Alabama, first vicepresident; Paul T. Rankin, Detroit, Michigan, second vicepresident; Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; J. C. Cochran, San Antonio, Texas; Jesse H. Mason, Canton, Ohio; and J. W. Ramsey, Fort Smith, Arkansas.

President Sexson outlined the general program of the Cleveland convention, which is to be built around the theme, "The Foundations

of American Education." Several of the sessions will emphasize various aspects of the work of the Educational Policies Commission. Comments and suggestions were invited. It was the consensus of opinion that every effort should be made to secure proper newspaper publicity for the convention. In recent years much of the publicity has centered around the meetings of certain groups not allied with the Association.

The Tuesday evening program will be presented by the Associated Exhibitors who will substitute this general session for their annual dinner. A feature of the evening will be the announcement and presentation of the American Education Award. A generous portion of the session will be devoted to entertainment.

President Sexson told of a new program feature for the session Thursday afternoon when the highspots of the convention will be presented in panel discussion. Thruout the week every general session and discussion group will be covered by a reporter who will prepare a well-written summary. These summaries will be edited and printed under the direction of Secretary William G. Carr of the Educational Policies Commission, and will be ready for distribution at the panel discussion Thursday afternoon.

The convention will come to a close with the presentation from the stage in the Cleveland Public Auditorium of the popular NBC radio feature, "America's Town Meeting of the Air." This broadcast, in which George V. Denny, Jr., is moderator, has received various awards for serving the interests of justice, freedom, and democracy in the United States. It is a revival of the little town meetings of old New England, at which voters gathered to hear arguments on their common problems and to question speakers.

Attention was called to the list of proposed topics for the 1941 yearbook. On motion of Mr. Ramsey, seconded by Mr. Mason, it was voted that the 1941 yearbook be devoted to the topic, "Education for Family Life."

Secretary Shankland presented a letter from Dean Ned H. Dearborn, Division of General Education, New York University, inviting the American Association of School Administrators to serve on a committee of organizations sponsoring the Center for Safety Education established by New York University in cooperation with the National Conservation Bureau. The letter pointed out that "membership on this committee will carry no obligations with it beyond

general approval of the project and a willingness to cooperate in any way that may seem feasible and desirable to the members themselves." In describing the project, the letter read, "While the whole field of training for safety is within the potential scope of the project, the main purpose of the undertaking is the development of teachers." On motion of Mr. Cochran, seconded by Mr. Ramsey, the invitation was accepted. It was further voted to appoint Henry H. Hill, chairman of the Association's 1940 yearbook on safety education, to represent the Association in this project, should a representative be needed.

A communication from the Convention Exhibit Committee was presented and read to the meeting. It recommended that registration and exhibits be open for four hours Sunday afternoon, February 26. On motion of Mr. Mason, seconded by Mr. Cochran, the recommendation was adopted.

On Saturday evening, October 15, the members of the Executive Committee attended a dinner given in honor of President John A. Sexson, by President Winfred G. Leutner of Western Reserve University. The distinguished list of guests included representative educators, businessmen, and editors.

Convention Appraisal Committee

The appointment of a Convention Appraisal Committee was authorized by the St. Louis convention in 1936. The first appraisal report was prepared at the New Orleans convention a year later. The Atlantic City Appraisal Committee met and planned its work on Saturday morning, February 26. The committee members worked thruout the convention period. They were aided by three competent secretaries. The report was completed on the Saturday following the adjournment of the convention. It was printed and mailed to all members of the Association within ten days.

Those who prepared the Atlantic City appraisal report were: Superintendent L. John Nuttall, Jr., Salt Lake City, Utah, *chairman*; Superintendent Merle J. Abbett, Fort Wayne, Indiana; Professor Leslie A. Butler, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan; Professor John Guy Fowlkes, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin; Secretary Frank L. Grove, Alabama Education Association, Montgomery, Alabama; Superintendent F. L. Schlagle, Kansas City, Kansas; Superintendent Zenos E. Scott, Louisville, Kentucky; and Superintendent David E. Weglein, Baltimore, Maryland.

The appointment of an appraisal committee was originally made on recommendation of the Committee on a Longer Planned Program for the Department of Superintendence with a view to summarizing and generalizing the various points of view on current problems discussed at the annual convention. In the first report, issued at New Orleans, it was deemed wise to give much space to the mechanical set-up of the convention. The Atlantic City report followed the same general pattern.

At Cleveland it is planned to follow the original plan by giving particular attention to summarizing and generalizing the convention discussions. There will be prepared, printed, and distributed at the Thursday afternoon general session a bulletin which will give a complete official summarization of the general and group meetings of the convention. It will be prepared by a committee of about twenty well-qualified educators, with Secretary William G. Carr of the Educational Policies Commission as editor-in-chief. Using this summarization as a basis, a panel under the leadership of United States Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker will discuss the ideas developed, suggest ways of implementing them, and develop a fair appraisal of the convention and its significance for educational policy and practice in America. The printed bulletin will contain, in addition to the summarization, news releases, the resolutions adopted by the convention, and other data which will aid superintendents of schools in adequately reporting the convention proceedings to boards of education, teachers meetings, and newspapers, upon returning home.

The Finances

For five years, from 1930 thru 1934, there was a falling off in the revenues of the Department. The cash receipts for 1930 were \$56,-480.87; for 1934 the amount was only \$38,475.14. In 1936 the receipts went up to \$54,255.50, and in 1938 to \$59,060.78.

The Department closed the year 1938 with a balance in the regular fund of \$19,149.76. The balance one year ago was \$19,722.02, and two years ago it was \$18,616.89. The principal source of revenue is the annual membership fee of five dollars. The Department enrolled 1,263 members in 1922; 3,114 in 1927; 4,013 in 1931; 3,110 in 1933; and 4,299 in 1938. The membership distribution by states for the last six years is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—MEMBERSHIP BY STATES FOR THE YEARS 1933-1938
 AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
formerly the Department of Superintendence

State	1933 Minne- apolis	1934 Cleve- land	1935 Atlantic City	1936 St. Louis	1937 New Orleans	1938 Atlantic City
Alabama.....	28	27	32	47	52	52
Arizona.....	21	19	18	23	23	23
Arkansas.....	19	20	23	36	35	32
California.....	98	95	100	109	136	144
Colorado.....	32	36	36	57	53	51
Connecticut.....	66	76	77	59	66	81
Delaware.....	14	20	22	23	23	23
District of Columbia.....	37	42	47	59	62	64
Florida.....	18	17	18	16	31	22
Georgia.....	24	38	41	41	61	63
Idaho.....	6	6	7	8	9	12
Illinois.....	196	209	226	333	290	300
Indiana.....	77	109	88	119	104	103
Iowa.....	95	83	73	91	83	74
Kansas.....	56	57	55	85	90	86
Kentucky.....	29	44	47	56	56	51
Louisiana.....	23	22	18	29	78	51
Maine.....	16	26	22	21	27	27
Maryland.....	45	50	54	47	52	64
Massachusetts.....	124	151	162	139	162	190
Michigan.....	109	132	118	171	183	200
Minnesota.....	282	92	77	102	90	87
Mississippi.....	17	30	30	38	63	38
Missouri.....	84	91	87	232	152	146
Montana.....	12	18	13	17	19	16
Nebraska.....	45	39	40	50	47	43
Nevada.....	2	2	3	4	3	4
New Hampshire.....	21	25	32	28	31	32
New Jersey.....	179	193	248	201	215	277
New Mexico.....	9	9	9	18	22	20
New York.....	307	364	394	372	379	448
North Carolina.....	36	42	29	42	47	65
North Dakota.....	21	15	11	19	12	17
Ohio.....	156	221	168	202	214	230
Oklahoma.....	42	46	42	67	70	61
Oregon.....	14	11	13	16	16	15
Pennsylvania.....	243	290	308	268	271	345
Rhode Island.....	32	38	48	38	39	42
South Carolina.....	13	18	20	21	44	39
South Dakota.....	23	19	18	23	23	20
Tennessee.....	24	31	43	54	49	39
Texas.....	143	187	201	226	269	240
Utah.....	14	13	13	28	26	26
Vermont.....	21	20	21	20	25	28
Virginia.....	38	42	49	45	51	61
Washington.....	15	13	13	20	31	23
West Virginia.....	31	28	35	40	35	51
Wisconsin.....	118	96	94	126	118	128
Wyoming.....	10	11	10	12	12	12
Alaska.....	1	1	1	1	1	2
Canada.....	6	10	6	8	7	13
Canal Zone.....	1	1	1	1	1	2
China.....	2	1	1	1	1	1
Hawaii.....	3	3	3	3	2	3
India.....	1	1	1	1	1	1
Iraq.....	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mexico.....	1	1	1	1	1	1
Philippine Islands.....	5	3	3	5	3	3
Puerto Rico.....	8	8	6	7	6	6
Virgin Islands.....	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total.....	3, 110	3, 310	3, 375	3, 925	4, 073	4, 299

NOTE: The count includes 4,115 members who paid dues for the year 1938, 6 honorary members, 174 life or twenty-five-year members, and 4 six-year members.

By agreement with the National Education Association, the net income from the exhibits at the winter meeting is divided equally between the Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention expenses. The active work of organizing and managing the exhibits is done by the Business Division of the National Education Association. The amounts which the Department has derived from this source during recent years are as follows:

1926—Washington	\$6,830.68
1927—Dallas	8,524.64
1928—Boston	8,883.87
1929—Cleveland	14,687.26
1930—Atlantic City	17,485.71
1931—Detroit	16,502.51
1932—Washington	12,903.39
1933—Minneapolis	9,061.75
1934—Cleveland	8,288.50
1935—Atlantic City	13,511.03
1936—St. Louis	16,044.82
1937—New Orleans	16,184.67
1938—Atlantic City	19,441.51

The statement of receipts and expenditures given below covers the calendar year 1938. It includes expenses of the Atlantic City convention, some preliminary charges for the Cleveland convention, and all items of general expense. All bills were paid at the end of the year. A detailed statement regarding the Permanent Educational Research Fund is given elsewhere in this report.

Regular Receipts during Calendar Year 1938

Annual dues, 3,766 members, 1938	\$18,830.00
Annual dues, 444 members, 1939	2,220.00
Interest—Permanent Research Fund	943.33
Yearbooks sold	6,789.56
Atlantic City exhibit	19,441.51
Educational Research Service	10,800.44
Other income	35.94
<hr/>	
Total receipts	\$59,060.78
Balance, January 1, 1938	19,722.02
<hr/>	
Grand total	\$78,782.80

Regular Expenditures during Calendar Year 1938

Atlantic City Convention:

Registration	\$495.63
Programs	1,609.96
Badges	227.82
Stenotype report	332.30
President's expense	133.35
Secretary's expense	164.53
Group meetings	193.27
Music	721.43
Expense for speakers	1,865.06
Appraisal report	705.01
Publicity	43.90
Friendship Dinner	809.93
Tea for new members	120.00
Projection service	83.00
Resolutions Committee	267.45

Total Atlantic City Convention \$7,721.24

General Expense:

Salary, Executive Secretary	\$9,750.00
Printing 11M Sixteenth Yearbooks	6,608.19
Printing 6M Atlantic City Official Reports	1,849.01
Printing Research Bulletins, 5 issues	817.60
Other printing	2,414.03
Postage, express, and stationery	5,846.66
Mimeographing, multigraphing, typing, etc.	3,137.29
Telephone and telegraph	408.55
President's expense	488.20
Secretary's expense	641.36
Executive Committee expense	1,244.82
Advisory Council	52.35
Convention Exhibit Committee	174.13
Audit Committee expense	104.55
Radio Committee	102.83
Board of Tellers	211.89
1939 Yearbook Commission expense	2,936.33
1940 Yearbook Commission expense	2,122.81
Worthless checks and bad debts	263.31
Educational Research Service, salaries	7,550.69
Educational Research Service, miscellaneous	2,718.17
Retirement fund	330.00
Supplies and equipment	458.35
Surety bonds	20.00
Committee on Certification of Superintendents	340.04
Cleveland convention, advance expense	226.59
American Council on Education	100.00

Total general expense \$51,911.80

Total expense for the year 59,633.04

Balance, December 31, 1938 19,149.76

Grand total \$78,782.80

Publications

The *Official Report* of addresses and proceedings of the Atlantic City convention was published and delivered to members soon after the meeting adjourned. It was a volume of 254 pages. Five issues of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association were mailed to members of the American Association of School Administrators during the year. The titles of these bulletins were: "Population Trends and Their Educational Implications," "From High School to College," "Why Schools Cost More," "Statutory Status of Six Professions," and "Safety Education thru Schools."

From time to time, certain other publications were mailed to members. In 1938 such items included: *Classified List of Educational Periodicals*, *Appraising the 1938 Meeting*, *Auditory Aids in the Class Room*, *The Expanding Program of Industrial Education*, and two issues of the Radio Calendar.

The yearbook is the principal publication of the American Association of School Administrators. The Sixteenth Yearbook, entitled *Youth Education Today*, was distributed to members at the time of the Atlantic City convention. The depression years emphasized the youth problem. As young people left the schools it was difficult or impossible for them to find their places in our social and economic order. The causes extended far beyond the schools' sphere of influence. Nevertheless, it is important for education to do its part. Three years of work on the part of a well-qualified commission were required for the preparation of the volume. The outlook which it presents is constructive. It sponsors no utopian policies or practices. It does review the facts and suggest the next steps, particularly those to be taken by educators.

The facts regarding the publication and sale of yearbooks are shown in Table 2.

1939 yearbook—Remarkable changes are taking place in schools of small communities. Good roads, telephones, and radios are among the factors which have widened the area of influence for the small community. Over half of the teachers in the United States are in communities with less than 2500 inhabitants. It is important, therefore, that administrative, supervisory, and instructional technics be developed which are suited particularly to small schools. With a view to meeting this need, the Resolutions Committee at the St. Louis

TABLE 2.—YEARBOOKS OF THE DEPARTMENT

Year	Title	Number copies printed	Cash sales of all yearbooks for the year
1923	Status of the Superintendent.....	3,200	\$142.45
1924	The Elementary School Curriculum.....	4,500	1,364.13
1925	Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum.....	11,000	4,707.65
1926	The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum.....	12,000	8,467.94
1927	The Junior High School Curriculum.....	11,000	8,844.57
1928	The Development of the High School Curriculum.....	10,000	9,830.58
1929	The Articulation of the Units of American Education.....	11,000	7,842.51
1929	Reprint of 1926 Yearbook.....	4,000
1930	The Superintendent Surveys Supervision.....	11,348	10,603.43
1931	Five Unifying Factors in American Education.....	11,572	8,375.87
1932	Character Education.....	12,000	10,053.94
1933	Educational Leadership.....	8,000	4,922.85
1934	Critical Problems in School Administration.....	7,000	5,021.13
1935	Social Change and Education.....	9,000	7,844.99
1936	The Social Studies Curriculum.....	14,000	9,128.17
1937	Improvement of Education: Its Interpretation for Democracy.....	9,000	6,965.99
1938	Youth Education Today.....	11,000	6,789.56

convention recommended a study of problems of schools in small communities, and later the Executive Committee voted to devote the 1939 yearbook to the subject.

President A. L. Threlkeld appointed the eight original members of the Commission. Additional appointments were made later by President Charles B. Glenn. The complete list of members is printed on page 4 of this volume.

The Commission has held four meetings in Chicago, each of about four days' duration. After general plans had been determined, each member accepted the responsibility of drafting one or more chapters. These were mimeographed by the Research Division of the National Education Association and subjected to careful scrutiny at later meetings of the Commission. The completed volume represents more than two years of work on the part of Commission members, done without fee or reward, other than the satisfaction which comes from contributing something to the improvement of our schools. Particular credit is due Frank W. Hubbard, associate director in charge of the Research Division of the National Education Association, who gave unstintingly of time and effort to the task of collecting facts, stimulating the activities of the Commission, and editing the material for publication, in addition to writing several sections of the report.

1940 yearbook—Good progress has been made in the preparation of the yearbook on Safety Education, which is to be issued in 1940. The Commission held three meetings during the past year—at Pitts-

burgh, Pennsylvania, January 27-28; at Lexington, Kentucky, May 5-7; and at Cincinnati, Ohio, September 22-24.

At the Pittsburgh meeting, reports of efforts by other agencies to promote safety were explored in some detail, after which a rough outline of the yearbook was drafted. In May, at Lexington, this outline was extensively revised and each member of the Commission was given responsibility for the preparation of the first draft of one or more chapters. Frank W. Hubbard of the Research Division of the National Education Association stated that the Highway Education Board was cooperating with the headquarters staff in four safety projects, as follows:

1. A library of published materials, consisting of about 1500 books, leaflets, courses of study, etc., has been collected.
2. Questionnaires to ascertain current practices in safety education were circulated to classroom teachers. Tabulations of replies from about 15,000 teachers were presented. The data included many types of helpful materials.
3. A special committee, meeting frequently during the winter and spring, has reviewed about 150 sound and silent motion pictures and lantern slide sets. A paragraph of comment has been prepared on each item reviewed. This list was printed in the November issue of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association.
4. A questionnaire on the administrative and supervisory aspects of safety education was sent to about 5000 superintendents of schools. About 2000 replies have been received and tabulated.

At Cincinnati, every member of the Commission was present and prepared to report on his individual assignment. After a review of the progress of the Commission to date and a summary of the Research Division's activities, the Commission read and discussed the chapters. This part of the work occupied two entire days. A special project authorized by the Commission is the preparation of a checklist for distribution in the fall of 1939. It will consist of a series of questions covering the various aspects of school safety programs. It is believed that this checklist will help superintendents to locate the weak points in their local programs and will promote interest in the forthcoming yearbook.

The members of the Commission, appointed by President Charles B. Glenn, are: Superintendent Henry H. Hill, Lexington, Kentucky, *chairman*; Superintendent Homer W. Anderson, Omaha, Nebraska; William H. Bristow, forum leader, United States Office of Educa-

tion; County Superintendent J. E. Bryan, Birmingham, Alabama; Superintendent H. M. Ivy, Meridian, Mississippi; Superintendent Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio; Amos E. Neyhart of the American Automobile Association; Superintendent James M. Spinning, Rochester, New York; and Vicepresident Albert W. Whitney of the National Safety Council.

Permanent Educational Research Fund

In April 1927 the Commission on the Curriculum recommended the appointment of a Committee on Financing Educational Research. The Boston convention in 1928 took favorable action on the proposal and directed the Committee to make plans for creating a fund that should yield an annual income sufficient to enable the Department to carry on important studies in education on a nationwide basis.

A year later the Committee, under the chairmanship of Randall J. Condon, undertook a vigorous campaign to secure contributions for the Permanent Educational Research Fund. Unfortunately, the financial depression seriously hampered the undertaking, making it necessary to postpone the general campaign to secure additional funds. Since then, efforts in favorable localities have been continued thru the headquarters office. Additions to the principal during 1938 amounted to \$985.

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association reports assets in the investment account to the credit of the Permanent Educational Research Fund on December 31, 1938, as follows:

	<i>Par Value</i>	<i>Book Value</i>
U. S. Treasury Savings Bonds due 1946.....	\$3,000.00	\$2,250.00
U. S. Treasury 3¼% Bonds due 1943-45.....	50.00	50.00
U. S. Treasury 3¼% Bonds due 1944-46.....	150.00	150.00
U. S. Treasury 27⁄8% Bonds due 1955-60.....	150.00	150.00
U. S. Treasury 2¾% Bonds due 1959.....	3,000.00	3,092.28
South Carolina Highway Certificate of Indebtedness 4¾% due 1946.....	2,000.00	2,077.28
Newport News City Street Improvement and Sewer- age Construction Bonds 5½% due 1950.....	11,000.00	11,285.00
Portsmouth, Virginia, Waterworks Bonds 5% due 1948.....	3,000.00	3,160.51
Cash on hand.....		1,880.00
Total.....		\$24,095.07

The following statement shows the assets at the beginning of the year, together with the cash receipts during 1938 of the Permanent Educational Research Fund:

Cash on hand, January 1, 1938	\$ 895.00
Bonds on hand, January 1, 1938	22,215.07
Life memberships—cash payments	680.00
Dallas, Texas, Schools by E. B. Cauthorn and L. V. Stockard, assistant superintendents:	
John Henry Brown School by Mamie Boone, principal	10.00
Richard Lagow School by R. C. T. Jacobs, principal	10.00
T. G. Terry School by Margaret Grady, principal	10.00
W. H. Adamson High School by Howard A. Allen, principal	20.00
Dallas Technical High School by W. J. E. Schiebel, principal	20.00
Sunset High School by W. T. White, principal	20.00
San Jacinto School by E. G. Grafton, principal	10.00
Stephen F. Austin School by E. G. Grafton, principal	10.00
Cumberland School by Alfred J. Loos, principal	10.00
James Stephen Hogg School by Charles H. Dent, principal	10.00
North Dallas High School by E. B. Comstock, principal	20.00
Forest Avenue High School by Wylie A. Parker, principal	20.00
Stephen J. Hay School by J. C. Oehler, principal	10.00
Maple Lawn School by Mrs. A. E. Stuart, supervising principal	20.00
Obadiah Knight School by Mrs. A. E. Stuart, supervising principal	20.00
Woodrow Wilson High School by G. L. Ashburn, principal	20.00
Lida Hooe School by G. H. Reagan, principal	10.00
Leonia, N. J., Teachers Club	5.00
Hackensack, N. J., Board of Education	25.00
Hornell, N. Y., Teachers Association	25.00
Assets as of December 31, 1938	\$24,095.07

The Educational Research Service

The year 1939 marks the fifteenth anniversary of the Educational Research Service. Authorized in a discussion from the floor at the 1923 meeting of the Department of Superintendence, the Service was formally launched in May 1924 when subscriptions were solicited. Since then it has shown a substantial increase in number of subscribers and income, as indicated in Table 3. From a total of 40 at the end of its first year, the number of subscribers has increased to 445.

Altho intended more directly to meet the needs of city school systems, the Service includes in its list of 445 subscribers, state depart-

TABLE 3.—EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE SUBSCRIBERS AND INCOME FROM SUBSCRIPTIONS

Year	Number of subscribers	Cash receipts from subscriptions
1	2	3
1924	40	\$525.00
1925	131	2,555.00
1926	177	3,325.00
1927	213	5,790.00
1928	245	6,225.00
1929	271	6,362.00
1930	323	8,112.50
1931	338	8,100.00
1932	324	7,443.75
1933	319	7,514.58
1934	346	8,496.75
1935	359	8,714.56
1936	369	9,254.17
1937	408	9,887.82
1938	445	10,800.44

ments of education, colleges and universities, and other agencies. Table 4 lists the number of subscribers in each group.

The Educational Research Service is maintained jointly by the American Association of School Administrators and the Research Division of the National Education Association. The \$25 annual fee entitles subscribers to receive a number of publications dealing with current topics in school administration. In addition, each subscriber is assured of individual assistance in response to requests for information.

Studies published for the Service during 1938 included a report on employment status and leaves of absence of teachers, a survey of enrolment trends in city school systems, 1933-34 to 1937-38, a bibliography of questionnaire studies, an analysis of promotion policies, a comparison of school and city expense based on United States Bureau of Census data, and bi-monthly abstracts of articles on education in lay magazines.

Other publications furnished to subscribers during the year have covered a wide range of educational topics. These include reference material on state school legislation prepared by the Research Division under the direction of the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association, the reports of the Educational Policies Commission, the publications of the American Association of School Administrators, and material from several other departments and from committees of the National Education Association. Among reports of outside agencies were the report of the President's Advisory

TABLE 4.—GROWTH IN NUMBER OF SUBSCRIBERS TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE

January 1, 1938—December 31, 1938

Group	January 1, 1938	Cancel- lations	New sub- scribers	December 31, 1938	Percent of total
	Number of sub- scribers			Number of sub- scribers	
City School Systems:					
Over 100,000 in population	80	1	5	84	18.9
30,000 to 100,000	83	1	6	88	19.8
10,000 to 30,000	63	5	12	70	15.7
5,000 to 10,000	17	4	2	15	3.4
Under 5,000	14	0	3	17	3.8
Total number of school systems . .	257	11	28	274	61.6
State Departments	18	1	3	20	4.5
Colleges and Universities	94	8	15	101	22.7
Other subscribers	39	8	19	50	11.2
Total	408	28	65	445	100.0

Committee on Education, the *Proceedings* of the National Association of Public School Business Officials, a publication of the Committee on Scientific Learning of the National Research Council on auditory aids in the classroom, a United States Office of Education pamphlet on per capita costs in city schools, and convention newspaper reports of the winter and summer meetings of the American Association of School Administrators and the National Education Association.

Thru the joint resources of the Educational Research Service and the Research Division of the National Education Association information is made promptly available to subscribers. Bibliographies, memorandums, and tabulations are prepared as occasion demands. Information collected regarding questionnaires in circulation supplies an additional source for data on current administrative practices. Topics most frequently stressed in recent letters of inquiry include comparative expenditures for school support, sources of school revenue, personnel practices affecting school employees including salary payments, school enrolments, and trends in organizing the school curriculum.

It is the aim of the Service to enable subscribers to draw upon nationwide experience in the solution of local problems, thereby providing an efficient and economical method of getting valuable and necessary information.

The Audit Committee

The books and accounts of the American Association of School Administrators are audited twice each year. In June, certified public accountants make a complete examination of the finances of the National Education Association, including all of its departments. The constitution of the American Association of School Administrators also requires that a committee of three members of the Department shall audit the accounts at the close of each fiscal year. The constitution further provides that its fiscal year shall correspond with the calendar year. The report of the Audit Committee for the year ended December 31, 1938, will be printed in full in the *Official Report* of the Cleveland convention. The members of the Committee are: Acting Superintendent Louis Nusbaum, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, *chairman*; Principal Harold V. Baker, Daniel Webster School, New Rochelle, New York; and Superintendent Jesse H. Binford, Richmond, Virginia.

Convention Exhibit Committee

The appointment of this Committee was authorized by the St. Louis convention in 1936. The members are: Superintendent Homer W. Anderson of Omaha, *chairman*; Superintendent Ben G. Graham of Pittsburgh; and Secretary-Treasurer Philip J. Hickey of the St. Louis Board of Education. On October 14 and 15, 1938, the Committee met at Cleveland. Others present were: President Frank Gregor, Jr., Vicepresident J. A. Campbell, and Secretary Paul L. Crabtree, representing the Associated Exhibitors; President John A. Sexson of the American Association of School Administrators; Superintendent of Schools Charles H. Lake of Cleveland; Business Manager H. A. Allan and Executive Secretary S. D. Shankland of the Washington headquarters staff.

The entire group visited the Public Auditorium and carefully examined the exhibit possibilities. President Sexson pointed out that he planned eight suitable sized spaces for special projects sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators. These will consist of small informal conferences, extending thruout the period of the convention, supplemented by the display of appropriate materials. The space immediately below the Arena of the Public Auditorium was selected for this purpose.

Mr. Allan explained in detail the general exhibit plans, which provide for 377 booths, occupying about 80,000 square feet of space. He presented a sketch of a proposed exhibit layout, which was approved in principle.

It was voted to recommend to the Executive Committee of the Association that registration and exhibits be open for four hours on Sunday afternoon, February 26. This recommendation was later adopted by the Executive Committee.

It was pointed out that the exhibit in recent years has grown to such a size that it is not possible to take care of all exhibitors who wish to participate. It was thought that it might be helpful to the headquarters office in assigning booth space if it could be determined which of the exhibits were most favorably received by convention visitors. It was proposed that one hundred superintendents of schools in cities of various sizes be requested to rate the exhibits, penciling their comments in the exhibit directory and forwarding the directory to the Washington office, the information thus received to be considered confidential. It was made clear that no one person would be expected to cover all of the exhibits. Each one would report only on those exhibits which he found it convenient to visit.

Questions which received particular attention were as follows:

1. How can the exhibit be most artistic and attractive?
2. How can the exhibit furnish pertinent information about the products in the displays?
3. How can the exhibit show new developments in keeping with the new trends in education?
4. How can the exhibit display materials that are not conveniently seen elsewhere?
5. How can the exhibit contribute to the school needs of the small communities?

President Sexson called attention to the special feature program for the general session on Tuesday evening, February 28, when the members of the American Association of School Administrators are to be the guests of the Associated exhibitors. Plans for the evening's entertainment were discussed in detail.

In a letter from the Convention Exhibit Committee, sent late in December to all exhibitors, the Committee said, in part:

It is needless to say that the Committee has been very much gratified at the apparent improvement in the exhibits from all standpoints, and at the sin-

cere desire displayed by the exhibitors to make their exhibits serve American education effectively.

We wish to assure you that our function is to provide a medium thru which the exhibitors and the educators may work more closely together for our mutual benefits and for the advancement of the education of youth in America.

Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools

The Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools was authorized by the New Orleans convention. The purposes of the committee, as expressed in a recommendation which it approved at its meeting held at Washington on April 4, 1938, are as follows:

1. To examine typical cities, existing laws, expert opinions, and other sources for information with regard to the qualifications necessary for the superintendency.
2. To suggest types of desirable modifications in existing state laws governing the qualifications and status of the superintendent.
3. To propose standards for the superintendency which may be used by boards of education as a guide in the selection of a superintendent.
4. To encourage universities and other training centers to utilize any proposed standards as an integral part of their training program.
5. To direct the attention of the American Association of School Administrators to the standards desirable in those admitted to membership.

Two important studies were authorized by the Committee. The first of these investigations is a summary of existing standards and qualifications proposed or required of superintendents of schools. The second investigation consists of a series of case studies of successful superintendents in cities of various population sizes. The first of these studies was prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association. The research and field work of the second study was assigned to Lawrence E. Vredevoogd of Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The personnel of the Committee on Certification of Superintendents of Schools is as follows: Superintendent Otto W. Haisley, Ann Arbor, Michigan, *chairman*; Superintendent Frank W. Ballou, Washington, D. C.; Superintendent Frank Cody, Detroit, Michigan; Superintendent W. Karl Hopkins, Ogden, Utah; Superintendent Carroll R. Reed, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Superintendent Joseph H. Saunders, Newport News, Virginia; and Professor George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Educational Policies Commission

Reconstruction following the ravages of the depression upon the schools emphasized the urgent need for long-time educational planning. There was need for a professional group which would devote itself to a comprehensive study of American life, with a view to determining the essential functions of education as well as how these functions could best be discharged. The National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence met the need by establishing the Educational Policies Commission, with the aid of a grant from the General Education Board. A five-year program of work was authorized.

The Educational Policies Commission is now completing the third year of the five-year period during which its financial support is assured. Thus far the Commission has prepared ten reports, of which at least three are of major importance. They are entitled: *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, and *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. The Commission is aided in its work by a group of 2700 ex-officio consultants, each of whom has received twenty-eight letters from the chairman of the Commission, transmitting reports, asking for cooperation, or seeking suggestions.

The Commission plans to complete as rapidly as possible the pronouncements which are already under way. The principal efforts for the next two years will be directed to getting the recommendations of the Commission before the American people. The center of emphasis in this new plan of implementation and promotion will be placed on the need for a vitalized and coordinated program of civic education for children and adults—a program which will help to carry American democracy successfully thru the hazardous times which apparently lie ahead.

Respectfully submitted,

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND

Executive Secretary

LIST OF MEMBERS

The American Association of School Administrators

A Department of the

National Education Association of the United States

Corrected to January 1, 1939

A

- Abbett, Merle J., A.B.'07, Franklin Col.; A.M.'18, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Admin. Bldg., Ft. Wayne, Ind., since 1932.
- Abbot, Julia Wade, B.S.'23, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir., Kdgn. Educ., Admin. Bldg., The Parkway at 21st, Philadelphia, Pa., since 1924.
- Abell, J. A., A.B.'10, A.M.'14, Ind. Univ.; Supt. of Sch., 151 W. Centennial St., Nappanee, Ind., since 1923.
- Abernethy, Robert R., Diploma '15, Keystone State Normal Sch., Kutztown, Pa.; B.S.'23, Muhlenberg Col.; M.A.'25, Univ. of Pa.; Supt. of Sch., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1935.
- Abernethy, Walter E., Supt. of Sch., Shelby, N. C.
- Ackerman, William A., A.B.'94, M.A.'97, Lafayette Col.; Ph.D.'02, Columbia Univ.; Dir., Bureau of Credentials and Secy., State Bd. of Examiners, State House, Trenton, N. J., since 1921.
- Ackley, Clarence E., A.B.'10, A.M.'13, Oberlin Col.; Ph.D.'33, Univ. of Pittsburgh; Secy., State Council of Educ. and Deputy State Supt. of Pub. Instr., Harrisburg, Pa.
- Ackley, E. L., A.B. and A.M.'05, Pd.B.'08, Syracuse Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Johnstown, N. Y., since 1910.
- Adams, Edwin W., B.S.'14, Temple Univ.; M.A.'22, Univ. of Pa.; Ed.D.'28, Temple Univ.; Assoc. Supt. of Sch., Philadelphia, Pa., since 1930.
- Adams, Jesse E., Ph.D.'25, Ind. Univ.; Prof. of Educ. and Dir. of Summer School, Univ. of Ky., Lexington, Ky., since 1925.
- Adams, Karl Langdon, Diploma in C.E.'08, B.S.'09, Ohio Univ.; M.A.'29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Pres., Northern Ill. State Tchrs. Col., DeKalb, Ill., since 1929.
- Adams, Ray H., A.B.'27, M.A.'28, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Dearborn, Mich., since 1916.
- Adams, Ruby M., B.S.'25, M.A.'29, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir. of Elem. Educ., Pub. Sch., Schenectady, N. Y., since 1935.
- Adams, Waldo Loren, A.B.'22, Manchester Col.; A.M.'30, Univ. of Chicago; Supt. of Sch., Sturgis, Mich., since 1933.
- Ade, Lester K., A.B.'21, M.A.'24, Bucknell Univ.; Ph.D.'31, New York Univ.; M.A.'32, Yale Univ.; State Supt. of Pub. Instr., Educ. Bldg., Harrisburg, Pa., since 1935.
- Adkins, Stanley, A.B.'10, Ohio State Univ.; M.A.'35, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Ely, Minn., since 1935.
- Adolph, Fred, B.S.'22, Mich. State Col.; A.M.'32, Univ. of Mich.; Supt. of Sch., Algonac, Mich., since 1928.
- Adrian, Frank Richard, 1319 Young St., Dallas, Texas.
- Aery, William Anthony, A.B.'04, Columbia Col.; A.M.'05, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Dir., Summer Sch., since 1932 and Dir. of Educ., Hampton Inst., Hampton, Va., since 1935.
- Aikins, Frederick H., B.S.'17, Univ. of Maine; M.Ed.'37, Bates Col.; Supt. of Sch., South Windham, Maine, since 1926.
- Aker, Homer Ferris, B.S.'16, Oregon State Col.; Dist. Supt. of Sch., Red Bluff, Calif., since 1935.
- Akerly, Harold E., B.S.'08, Univ. of Rochester; S.B.'10, Mass. Inst. of Tech.; M.A.'33, Univ. of Rochester; Asst. Supt. of Sch., 13 Fitzhugh St., S. Rochester, N. Y., since 1929.
- Akridge, Garth H., B.S. in Ed.'31, Ark. State Tchrs. Col., Conway, Ark.; M.A.'32, Ph.D.'37, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Special Asst., Natl. Youth Admin., 1734 New York Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C., since 1938.
- Albergotti, William M., B.S.'21, The Citadel; M.A.'30, Wofford Col.; Supt. of Sch., Greer, S. C., since 1935.
- Albright, Denton M., A.B.'15, Albright Col.; A.M.'22, Columbia Univ.; Supt. of Sch., Crafton, Pa., since 1938.
- Alexander, Carter, B.S.'05, A.B.'06, A.M.'08, Univ. of Mo.; Ph.D.'10, Columbia Univ.; Library Prof., Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ., New York, N. Y.
- Alexander, James W., A.B.'02, Princeton Univ.; Supvg. Prin. of Twp. Sch., Trenton, N. J., since 1916.
- Alfaro, Mrs. Concepcion P., Diploma '22, A.B.'36, Univ. of Puerto Rico; Supt. of Sch., Rio Grande, P. R., since 1934.
- Alford, T. H., A.B.'26, State Tchrs. Col., Conway, Ark.; A.M.'29, George Peabody Col. for Tchrs.; State Commr. of Educ., Little Rock, Ark., since 1938.
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- Robertson, John W., B.S.'24, M.A.'32, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Prin., Floral Park Bellerose Sch., Floral Park, N. Y., since 1929.
- Robertson, Martin Brown, B.S.'18, Trinity Col., Hartford, Conn.; M.A.'20, Pa. State Col.; M.A.'21, Tchrs. Col., Columbia Univ.; Field Supvr. of Rural Educ., State Bd. of Educ., Willimantic, Conn., since 1925.
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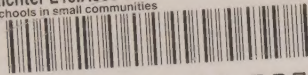
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